

The Outlook

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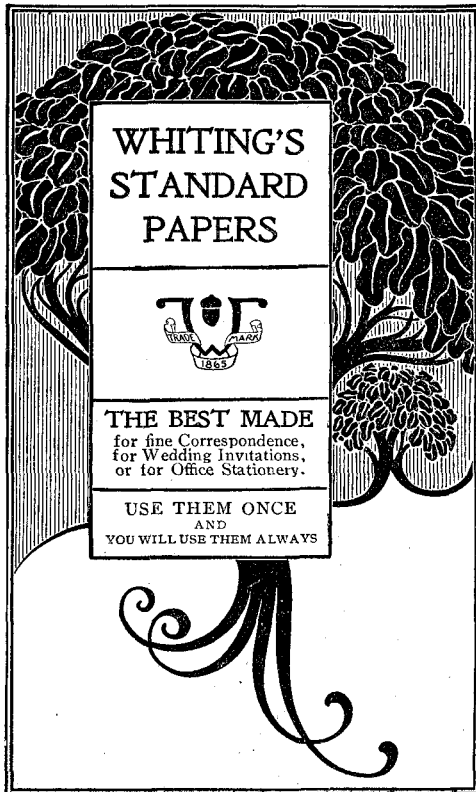
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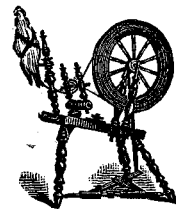
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No. 7

The Army Investigation The Commission has begun its investigation into the administration of the War Department. Generals Wheeler, Boynton, and Lee have been heard. The public will expect that all Generals will be inclined to make as good showing as they honestly can for the Department under which they were conducting their campaign. The spirit of loyalty would demand this much of them. It will also expect to find that there have been exaggerations of evil and unreasonable complaints. Both expectations are met by the testimony as reported in the daily papers. On the whole, the showing of these witnesses indicates a better condition of affairs than the reports in the public press have indicated. General Wheeler insists that the troops had sufficient rations in Cuba, and, if they suffered from want of food, it was because they threw their rations away when they went into action; that the tents were left on board the transports in order to expedite the march; and that the disease in Cuba was chiefly due to climate. But his testimony brings out the fact that the transportation facilities at Camp Wikoff were inadequate, and that when he arrived the tents were without floors, there was a scarcity of nurses, and disinfecting plants had to be provided. General Boynton declares that the typhoid fever at Chickamauga was imported from State camps; but he admits, though apparently somewhat reluctantly, that after General Brooke went to Washington military discipline declined and proper sanitary conditions were not maintained. The public, which desires to know the actual truth, will, however, remember that the press reports both of camps and of battles in the Civil War proved often more trustworthy than the official reports from officers in the field, and while it will make allowance for exaggeration in certain journals, and for the probability of unreasonable complaints in certain quarters, it will still expect that the spe-

cific charges made by responsible accusers such as George Kennan, Richard Harding Davis, Poultney Bigelow, and the men whom they have quoted, will be much more thoroughly inquired into than has as yet been done, if we may judge from the published reports of the proceedings already had.

The Peace Commission The sessions of the Peace Commission in Paris have gone on uninterruptedly during the past week, and, although the newspapers have been filled with all manner of reports concerning the results of these sessions, it may be authoritatively stated that no trustworthy intelligence either of the course of the discussions or of the results reached has come to the public; all reports of interviews with the Commissioners or letters from them may be promptly dismissed. It is probably true that the Spanish Commissioners expected to go through the time-worn course of diplomatic deliberations; to put forth claims which they did not expect to be conceded, and to have to consider demands from the other side which were simply preliminary diplomatic fencing. The American Commissioners have undoubtedly stated their case frankly, and are probably declining to modify their position on all matters in which they have come to an agreement in advance. The recognition by the Spanish Commissioners that the American Commissioners say precisely what they mean and mean what they say will facilitate the process of reaching a conclusion. General Merritt arrived in Paris during the week, and has undoubtedly furnished the Commissioners with the results of his careful observation of conditions in the Philippines. It is reported that the Spanish Cabinet has been hoping to make an arrangement with some of the Great Powers which should dispose of the Philippines in such a way as to keep them out of American hands, and to

set some Great Power in antagonism to any attempt on the part of the United States to retain the islands, but that the various Governments have finally destroyed this hope by their definite refusals to touch the question. The French would prefer that the Philippines should be controlled by the United States than by Germany; while Germany, recognizing that in all probability the United States and England are likely to act together in the South Sea, desires to co-operate with rather than oppose them. England is, in fact, already reaping the fruit of the good will between the two countries in the softening of her relations with Germany.



Aguinaldo and the
Philippines

It is naturally very difficult to ascertain from the very fragmentary reports which come to us what are the sentiments and desires of the people of Luzon respecting their future government. The most authoritative statement which we have seen is to be found in a published interview with Senator William E. Chandler, giving the results of the conference which he has had with Agoncillo, the representative of Aguinaldo and his followers. Of Aguinaldo Senator Chandler says:

His first desire is that the Treaty of Paris shall provide that Spain shall wholly relinquish the Philippine Islands; and, secondly, he is anxious that the experiment of self-government may be tried by the people of the islands, with the assent and assistance of the United States. It seems very clear that the people of the islands will not again submit to Spanish rule, from which they are now actually freed throughout nearly their whole territory, and that, therefore, if the United States forces should be withdrawn and Spain should attempt to resubdue the islands, a bloody struggle would ensue, the existence of which would dishonor the United States.

That Aguinaldo desires to try the experiment of self-government is natural enough, since he will be at the head of the nation thus constituted. What the United States wants to know is, What is the wish of the men on the island of Luzon who own property, who possess intelligence, and on whom the future progress and the final civilization of the island depend? If they are willing to trust an Aguinaldo government experimentally, there is no reason why the United States should not do so. If they are as much afraid of the rule of the insurgents as they are of Spanish rule, and desire to be protected against both, and especially if the insurgents

themselves are held together either by the cohesive power of the hope of plunder or by a fear of the restoration of Spanish power, and are ready to welcome an American government which will insure protection to their lives and property, Aguinaldo's personal desires should and will count for very little. This is a point on which the country has to wait for further information.



The Indian War The facts respecting the so-called Indian war, as we gather them from the public press, are simply and easily stated. Certain Chippewa Indians in northern Minnesota were engaged in the illegal sale of whisky within the limits of an Indian reservation. In order to convict them, United States officials summoned Bush Ear, the leader of the band, as a witness. He refused to go, on the alleged ground that on a previous summons he had not been paid his witness fees. He was then taken under a warrant, and was rescued from the marshal by a sudden and fierce attack of some of his band. The so-called Indian war has been simply a determined and very legitimate effort to arrest Bush Ear and his rescuers, and, after a brief engagement with the Indians, this effort has succeeded. It is the same sort of war as not infrequently occurs in other parts of the country when legal process is resisted and force has to be called into requisition to put the resistance down. It appears probable, however, that this resistance never would have taken place if the Chippewa Indians had not been made discontented by previous injustice suffered at the hands of white men, in this proposed removal from their present quarters to another reservation, in the failure to pay them for improvements which they had made in their present quarters, and in apparently flagrant dishonesty in the valuation of their timber by politically appointed inspectors under the last Administration. In this, as in most cases, Indian wars are traceable to Anglo-Saxon injustice, and that in turn to politics in the Indian Bureau. In this case the cost to the country has been the life of a brave officer and of several men of his command.



Senator Quay We referred last week to Senator Quay's arrest. The papers give some account of the basis on which these criminal proceedings had been taken

against him. It seems that certain letters from him were found in a private drawer of the cashier's desk at the People's Bank, used by the late cashier of the bank. The discovery of these letters was, according to the reports, a surprise both to him and to his counsel, and the latter fought hard against their production in evidence. The Outlook will not attempt to express any judgment respecting their legal effect, but on their face they indicate that Mr. Quay was using the influence which he had with the bank, growing out of his securing for it the State deposits, in order to borrow money from the bank for various speculations, especially in the Metropolitan Traction Company and in Sugar stock. The thoughtful reader will be apt to recall the fact that the Metropolitan Traction Company of Philadelphia has been dependent on political influence, and that the Sugar Trust in Washington has not been independent of it, and he will be apt to draw the conclusion that a Senator who secures for a bank the deposits of the State on such conditions that the bank pays no interest for the use of the money, and then borrows funds from the bank to carry on speculations in the stock of corporations whose prosperity is dependent on political influence which he can exert, is not—to put it mildly—above suspicion. The public will await with great interest the final result of the legal investigation in this case.



The Quebec Conference Since our last report of the Quebec Conference the negotiations have been going on, and a considerable amount of work has been accomplished, though the exact nature of it cannot be learned from the members of the Commission. The proceedings have again been varied by festivities which, though having no direct relation to the objects of the Conference, can hardly fail to increase the good feeling which makes mutual concessions more probable. The reception of the Ancient and Honorable Artillery Company of Boston was of the most enthusiastic description, and the speeches made by Senator Fairbanks, Lord Aberdeen, and Major-General Hutton, commanding the Canadian militia, were statesmanlike as well as most cordial in recognition of the bonds of interest and good will which tend to bring English-speaking peoples closer together. The Commissioners have been busy taking evidence in regard to the ques-

tion of reciprocity, and have heard additional deputations representing special interests. The New England Free Trade League has sent to our Commissioners an elaborate argument to prove that reciprocity would not injure our agricultural interests. The Hon. D. S. McMillan, an ex-Senator of this State, was sent to Quebec on behalf of the malting interests of northern New York and Pennsylvania, to urge the abolition of the prohibitive duty of thirty cents on Canadian barley, which is superior to any other for malting purposes. On the other hand, deputations representing certain Canadian manufacturers have urged the retention of the present duties against our manufactures of a similar kind. The Attorney-General of British Columbia appeared to state the views of his Government on matters before the Commission affecting the welfare of that province. On all these matters no conclusion has yet been reached, and on Monday last the Conference adjourned to meet at Washington on the first of November. There has been a great deal of discussion concerning the Rush-Bagot Convention of 1817, according to which Great Britain and the United States agreed upon certain restrictions as to the building of war vessels upon the great lakes. Contrary to the common impression, this convention can be dissolved on six months' notice given by either party, and the desire of ship-builders in our lake cities to construct such war-ships of the smaller type as may be needed by our Government has given a strong impetus to the movement for abrogation. Judging from newspaper reports and speeches of prominent men, it is a subject on which the Canadians are very sensitive, and they appear to look upon it as involving the sending of a British naval force to the great lakes. It is necessary to add that the reports of a settlement of the Alaskan boundary question are not confirmed.



**Newfoundland
Fishing Rights**

French fishing rights on the west shore of Newfoundland have vexed British diplomacy for more than a century, and an effort is now being made to effect a final settlement which will be acceptable to the island. The sharp conflict between the interest of the English-speaking inhabitants and the French fishermen has done more than anything else to retard progress. As a preparation for negotiations to be conducted by Mr. Chamber-

lain and the French foreign office, a British Commission, composed of Sir John Bramston and Admiral Erskine, has been investigating the subject, and will shortly report upon it. Broadly stated, the issue is whether the fishing rights acquired by France under the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713, the Treaty of Paris in 1763, and the Treaty of Versailles in 1783, have been exercised in good faith by that power, or whether certain provisions of those treaties have been violated. The strip of coast subject to French rights extends eight hundred miles from Cape Ray north, east, and south as far as Cape St. John. Within those limits the privilege of catching fish and drying them on land is allowed, but the establishment of any settlement or fortification is forbidden. When the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon were ceded to France for fishing purposes, similar restrictions as to settlement and fortification were imposed. On behalf of Great Britain it is claimed that she has scrupulously protected the French fishermen in their rights, even to the extent of arousing the strong resentment of the Newfoundlanders; but the latter claim that France has assumed certain privileges not authorized by treaty and exceedingly injurious to the prosperity of the colony. Not only the west coast, but half a mile inland, has been used by France to prevent the building of any British port or railway terminal. St. Pierre, contrary to treaty, has a settled population of more than three thousand, has been fortified, and is alleged to be injurious to the Dominion as well as Newfoundland by reason of the smuggling trade. Such are the main difficulties. The collateral right of which France is most tenacious is that of recruiting sailors for her navy, of which St. Pierre, Miquelon, and the west coast are nursing-grounds. On the other hand, the English-speaking portion, who look upon the island as their own, have reached the limit of patience under the blighting restrictions which hamper them, and are firmly resolved upon a change. The hope is that Mr. Chamberlain may grant some concession in Africa or in Asia for which the relinquishment of the west shore rights will be accepted as an equivalent.



The Situation in China The situation in China has become almost as mysterious as the Dreyfus case. No one seems to know whether the Emperor is dead

or alive, but it seems to be taken for granted that, if he is not dead, a worse fate has probably befallen him, and that his death is merely a question of time. The difficulty of arriving at any opinion on this subject is brought out by the fact that the Chinese Embassy in London first announced the death of the Emperor, and then, later, sent out a denial of the report of his death. Whether the Emperor still lives or has been put to death, the definite fact in the situation seems to be that the Dowager Empress is governing China, and that her dominance means the restoration of Russian influence at Peking. So far there has been no serious disturbance in any part of the Empire, but there have been ominous mutterings, foreigners have been insulted and stoned, and the Embassies are protected by special guards.



Affairs in Crete The Sultan has acceded to the joint demand of Great Britain, Russia, France, and Italy, and the withdrawal of Turkish troops from Crete will be completed within a short time. This ends the insurrections and bloodshed which have marked Turkish rule in Crete, and is a distinct step towards the settlement of the ultimate position of the island. But there is still a Cretan question, even if the power of Turkey is broken. An indefinitely prolonged joint occupation is out of the question, and the alternatives would then be reduced to independence, annexation to Greece, and control by one of the Great Powers. The inhabitants have more than once manifested their desire for annexation, but Greece is so crippled by indebtedness that she is herself practically a vassal State. As to independence, the Cretans have very little capacity for self-government, and the population is mixed. Its present position tends to place Crete under the control of that Power whose interest is strongest, whose naval force is predominant, and whose place in the balance of power concentrates less antagonism in the Mediterranean than elsewhere. Great Britain alone meets these conditions, besides possessing the temporary leadership in the changes now going on. Italy is her staunch naval ally, and France or Russia, striking either singly or in combination, would have to meet the united fleets of Italy and Great Britain. The latter is already so strong, by the possession of Gibraltar, Malta, and Cyprus, that Crete is not absolutely necessary to her;

but her desire to hold Egypt is so strong that she is bound to avail herself of any new accession of strength in the naval control of the Mediterranean. Russia's ruling interest is in China, and France's unaided navy is no match for that of Great Britain. It would seem, therefore, that the latter has a decided advantage in the conditions which determine the control of Crete by any one of the Great Powers. It would certainly be best for the tranquillity and progress of the island if such were its destiny.



Affairs in Northern India

There are very few indications of further resistance among the tribes on the north-western frontier of India. The Afridis and Zakka-Khels show no disposition to come into conflict with the British again, and the former are readily enlisting in regiments of the Indian army. Another cause of the more peaceful outlook is the decline of the fanatical agitation started by the Mad Mullah, who is now discredited. Native levies are heartily co-operating with the British in holding the Khyber Pass, and nearly all the terms of submission imposed have been complied with. The British policy is to strengthen the friendship shown by these formidable tribes for their late enemies, and to use them as military allies. Properly officered, they would be among the most efficient soldiers in the world.



Unrest in Paris

There have been no new developments in the Dreyfus matter during the past week. Public attention has been diverted by the spread of a great strike which may assume alarming proportions. The strike began with the Parisian workmen of the lowest grade—the day laborers—but now includes the masons, iron-workers, stone-cutters, the house-building guilds, the plumbers and truckmen, and kindred trades. Of the two hundred thousand workmen in Paris who have to do with the building of houses, forty thousand are now on a strike—well organized, officered by Socialist or Collectivist leaders, with guards distributed at working places throughout the city to prevent non-striking men from taking the strikers' places, and with flying squadrons of strikers on bicycles moving from point to point in order to reinforce any threatened position. The leaders, meanwhile, are in

permanent session. All the buildings in course of construction are guarded by troops; the garrison of Paris has been reinforced, and it is stated that General Zurlinden, the Military Governor, has nearly sixty thousand men under his orders. The situation presents two alarming possibilities: the danger that further delay in the work on the Exposition buildings, now at a standstill, may seriously interfere with the opening of the Exposition in 1900; second, the danger that in the excited condition of public opinion some new incident in the Dreyfus affair may be taken up by the strikers and a labor movement become merged into a political or revolutionary movement.



England and America

Professor Dicey's discussion of the growing cordiality of feeling between this country and England in the current number of the "Atlantic Monthly" is of a piece with the discussion of this subject from the beginning—that is to say, it is free from hysteria, sentimentalism, or extravagance. Nothing has been more reassuring as respects the permanent character of the present feeling between the two countries than the sobriety and calmness with which it has been discussed on this side of the Atlantic. Professor Dicey brings out the fact that the sudden expression of cordial feeling in England is not an indication of a sudden revolution, but is rather the coming to light of a progression of feeling going on in that country for many years past. For nearly thirty years, he reminds us, every English statesman worthy of the name has been studious to promote good will between the two countries. All English public men have perceived the great value to England of the maintenance of cordial relations with this country, because England has so much more in common with us than with any other nation; because both countries are devoted to industrial progress; because both are naval rather than military powers; and because the two countries together are destined to become the dominant power in the world. England has also recognized the fact that permanent alliance between herself and any Continental power is extremely difficult; the price which England pays for her world-wide empire is not only great accessibility to attack, but very general envy among other nations. Professor Dicey does not believe that far-reaching policies can be based on sentiment, nor does he

believe that the interests of the two countries will always obviously coincide. He points out the difficulties of any kind of formal alliance between the two nations, and reaches the conclusion that the two definite things which can be done at present are: first, the removal of all existing grievances between the two countries; and, second, the negotiation of an arbitration treaty. The first step has already been taken in part; for the Commission now sitting in Quebec is likely to settle most if not all of the open questions between the two countries. The settlement of future disputes by arbitration is more than probable. It is the plain and obvious duty of both countries. The points of difference which are likely to arise between the two countries are, fortunately, of the kind to which arbitration is particularly applicable; and the two countries are much more ready, by reason of education, to accept the judgment of an international tribunal than any other countries.

Education in Economics and Business

One of the signs of the times is the opening of the London School of Economics and Political Science, which was announced to begin its sessions on Friday of last week. This school proposes to offer to its students regular courses in Economic History and Theory, Statistics and their Application, and Political Science, including both the structure of the State and the principles of local government. Among the subjects which are to be treated in supplementary courses of lectures, open to the general public, are Chartered Companies, Foreign Banking, Principles of Local Taxation, Railway Law, and Finance. It is announced that the school will provide courses for the special training of railway and municipal officials, and the technical and commercial education required in order to prepare for the examinations of the London Chamber of Commerce and Institute of Bankers. This new departure in the field of education cannot be called experimental, because the school is planned to meet certain obvious needs in English life. Its establishment marks the immense advance in popular interest of economic and political science, and the general recognition of the fact that special training is needed in order to deal intelligently with these great subjects. The establishment of the school is also a recogni-

tion of the fact, which is very rapidly coming to be realized in business circles, that special training is as necessary for business efficiency and success as for professional efficiency and success.



Training for Teachers In a letter to the New York "Tribune," Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler says that the aim of every educational reformer for a long time past has been to improve the teachers by raising the standard of scholarship required for entrance upon the work of teaching, and by insisting upon previous study of the history, principles, and practice of education. To meet these two demands, which represent the consensus of educated opinion, the normal schools came into existence. They have been, in many cases, far from satisfactory; they have sometimes antagonized the more advanced views of progressive educators; they have often exalted formal methods at the expense of real teaching; but, as a whole, they have rendered great service to the public schools of the community, especially in villages and rural communities. What they now need is a higher standard of admission; a full four years' course of secondary education should be required as preparation for normal-school work. If this were done, the graduates of the normal schools would be well fitted for elementary-school teaching. Massachusetts has already reached this point, and New York is working toward it. A college education cannot be accepted in place of normal-school training. The college graduate, without special study, although more generously educated, is as unfitted for teaching as for the practice of law and medicine without special preparation. The progressive colleges are recognizing this fact. The Teachers' College affiliated with Columbia University, the School of Pedagogy conducted by the New York University, the School of Education in connection with the University of Wisconsin, and the departments of education at Harvard, Cornell, Pennsylvania, Syracuse, Chicago, and in many of the Western State Universities, are the result of the recognition of the fact that teaching, like all other professional work, requires special and definite training. The need of superior teachers in this country is very great. That need would not be met if colleges and normal schools alike were crowded to their utmost capacity.

The Presidential Investigation

We report very briefly on another page the evidence thus far given before the Presidential Commission appointed by the President to investigate the question of abuses in the War Department. The public will now naturally await the result of these official investigations, and the more thorough inquiry by the committee of investigation sure to be appointed by Congress when it convenes. The charges against the Department have been formally preferred. They are not vague, and have been presented not chiefly by anonymous newspaper correspondents or in sensational prints; they have specified names, dates, occasions, and special abuses, easy to disprove if the charges are false; and they have been preferred by well-known writers, in journals eminently conservative—such as Caspar Whitney in "Harper's Magazine," Richard Harding Davis in "Scribner's Magazine," and George Kennan in *The Outlook*. The letter from Mr. Kennan in *The Outlook* of last week and that which finds place in this issue are clear, definite, and comprehensive. Such statements cannot be ignored. They have been confirmed in certain of their particulars by the testimony of chaplains—military and volunteer—nurses, soldiers, and army officers, some of the latter of high rank. They have been met by the affirmation of the Secretary of War that "everything that human ingenuity could devise has been done for the succor of that [the Santiago] army," and "every effort has been made to furnish every camp with all the appliances asked for." Thus the issue is fairly joined; the War Department is on trial; and the country will await with patience the issue of the trial. But it will not endure with patience any appearance of endeavor to thwart thorough investigation, to screen the guilty if there has been guilt, or to evade responsibility for avoidable evils. The American public is not captious; it is not suspicious; it errs rather on the side of generous trust; but when well-grounded suspicions are aroused, it is apt to demand that the whole truth be known, no matter who is injured by the revelation. We misread the temper of the American people if this is not its present purpose.

It would, therefore, be a great mistake politically were the Administration to attempt to conceal anything or to estop the most

searching inquiry. There has been no such attempt on the part of the President; he has, on the contrary, by the appointment of this Commission, anticipated and prepared the way for a thorough Congressional inquiry. It would be a great mistake for the Republican party to commit itself to the position that there have been no wrongs to be righted. It has not done so; in some of the State platforms it has done the reverse, demanding investigation. But some of the Republican organs have not been equally wise.

There are two questions which the American people want answered. First: What is the extent and what the nature of the abuses? Second: Where is the responsibility, and what are the preventive measures to guard against their repetition?

That there have been abuses we consider already established beyond question. We believe this is the general judgment of the American people. Were they local, sporadic, occasional, due to exceptional incompetency in subordinate officials? Or were they widespread, in camps at home and in the field in Cuba? Were they due to ignorance, inexperience, and incompetence? Or was there also fraud and corruption? The manifest reluctance to have any investigation has done something to create the suspicion of corruption, a suspicion which only very thorough inquiry will suffice to allay.

Where does the responsibility for these abuses lie? What forms of legislation and methods of administration are needed to prevent their repetition in the future? How far is the Secretary of War personally responsible? Was he competent for his difficult post? Does the fact that he remained in nominal charge of the office during the period when we should have been preparing for the war, although he was sick and unable to be at his desk, account, in whole or in part, for our inadequate preparation? Did he really seek to bend all his energies toward making the best possible fighting machine, in the least possible time? or did he also try to promote personal or party ends by his administration? Did he exhaust the list of men trained at West Point and those who had been educated by experience in the Civil War, before he turned to civilians to fill posts in the Quartermaster's and Commissary Departments? Or did he pass the former by and put in inexperienced men to perform the most difficult of tasks, because political or personal friends demanded the appoint

ments? These are questions which a Commission appointed by the President cannot very well ask. But the people are asking them; and they expect that a Congressional inquiry will give an answer to them. Such answer the people have a right to demand.

How far is the method of our army organization responsible? It is a several-headed organization. There appears to the public to be a lack of central authority and of defined responsibility. What are the relations of the Quartermaster's, the Commissary's, and the Medical Departments to each other? What are their respective relations to the officers in the field? Whose duty is it to see that there are proper sanitary arrangements in the camps? proper and adequate supplies of food? sufficient hospital and medical provisions? Who is to blame for the fact that there were only five surgeons on hand after the battle before Santiago (Outlook, July 30, p. 770), and no hospital tents, and no adequate provision of nurses? What are the relations between the military head of the army and the Secretary of War—General Miles and Secretary Alger? Even this appears to the public to be a matter by no means clearly defined. What are their relative duties and their mutual relations? How far were the apparent disorder, lack of supplies, inefficient preparation, needless privation, sickness, and death due to lack of proper army organization? In so far as this was the cause, it is the duty of Congress to provide a remedy, by studying the military organizations of other lands, and using the best models which experience has contrived in framing a new and better organization for our own military staff.

What in the future should be the relation of our volunteers and our regular army? The Constitution evidently intends that the State militia shall be used only in two exigencies: to put down insurrection at home, and to defend our territory from invasion. Can we expect to go beyond these Constitutional limits in the use of the militia? Can we expect to organize an army of invasion out of State militia, largely commanded by officers of their own selection, and hope to make a homogeneous power out of such heterogeneous elements? Does not the entire question of the National Guard, and its relation to the Federal Government, and its value for Federal services, need reconsideration?

The Outlook does not attempt in such an article as this to formulate all the questions

which this war and its conduct have forced upon the attention of the American people. It only insists that they shall be carefully formulated and thoroughly investigated. No one will affirm that our army was as well equipped for its campaign in Cuba as General Kitchener's army for its campaign in Egypt. There have been serious failures in administration, and great abuses in the camp and in the field. However excusable these may be in a first campaign on the ground of inexperience, they would be unpardonable if repeated. To ascertain exactly what these abuses were, who was responsible for them, and how to prevent them in the future, is a first duty of the American people. The press has done good service in exposing the wrongs. It is now for the proper tribunals—first the Presidential Commission, then a Congressional Committee—to determine their extent and their nature, to find out where the blame for them rests. And then it will be the duty of Congress to provide by wise legislation against their possible recurrence.



Temperance Legislation

The question which Colonel Waring raises in his article printed on another page will seem to certain of our readers no question at all. The argument of the Prohibitionist is very simple. It cannot be right for a community to sanction what it is wrong for an individual to do: it is wrong for an individual to sell alcoholic liquors as a beverage; therefore it is wrong for the community to sanction such sale: it is doubly wrong to sell them on the Sabbath; therefore it is doubly wrong for the community to sanction such Sabbath sale. If we grant that all liquor-selling is wrong, the argument still appears to us to ignore another and a very serious question: What are the rights and duties of a majority in a democratic community? We ask those of our readers who place greater reliance on legislation as a means of moral reform than we do, to consider this question without prejudice, and the bearing of the answer on the problem which Mr. Waring presents.

In a paternal government there is good ground for claiming that the supreme authority is responsible for the conduct of the subjects, and therefore has a right and a duty to regulate that conduct. The father may and largely does determine the diet and the dress of his children; no one complains of

sumptuary legislation in the household. In a similar manner, and for a similar reason, the Czar may determine on what conditions his people may get alcoholic beverages or whether they may get them at all. He is supposed to be wiser than they, and they are supposed to be under his direction and control because he is wiser than they.

The doctrine of a democratic community is very different. No one supposes that the majority in so heterogeneous a population as that of the United States affords any final standard of either wisdom or virtue. It furnishes only a general average of wisdom and virtue, and that average is certain to fall below the higher standards of the best born and the best educated. Democracy rests, not on any notion that the many are wiser or more virtuous than the few, but on the belief that it is safer to leave every man to judge of his own interests and his own duties than it is to intrust him to the care and control of some one else. The danger to him from his own ignorance or even his own vices is less than the danger from the selfishness of the supposedly beneficent despot into whose hands, on any other theory, he would be put for safe keeping. He will blunder, but he will learn by his blunders; he will sin, but he will learn by his sins. Leave him—this is what democracy says—to determine his own duties and to perform them or neglect them as he chooses. Leave him to ascertain his own interests and to conserve or sacrifice them as he chooses. Counsel, instruct, aid, but do not control him.

Under this system government no longer undertakes, as paternal government does, to control men for their own good. For the same reason that it no longer endeavors to regulate their religious worship, it no longer endeavors to furnish their ethical ideals or to regulate their moral conduct. It leaves them free to self-regulation in the one domain as in the other. It confines itself to two functions: co-operative action in certain common activities, as in the post-office and the public school; and the protection of the community from aggression by other communities and of the individual in the community from other individuals. It requires, or may require, each individual to abstain from such performances on the Sabbath as tend to destroy the Sabbath rest of others, but it leaves, or should leave, him perfectly free to go to church or ride a bicycle. It interferes, or should interfere, to prevent him from making

his house a breeding-place of pestilence; but it leaves him free to waste his money in what extravagance of dress or table his folly may dictate. The principle is very easy of statement, but is very difficult in application. The principle is that government is not to protect the individual from his own wrong-doing; it is, on the contrary, to leave him perfectly free to do wrong provided his wrong-doing does not injure his neighbor. But it is to prevent him from inflicting wrong upon his neighbor, although, in order to do so, it has to interfere with his liberty to follow his own judgment or even his own conscience. The difficulty of application lies in the fact that it is often difficult to determine how far government should go in the work of protection, and against what injuries it should protect. It is, for example, the right of the individual to dress as he pleases, but he may not go naked upon the streets; he may talk as he pleases, but he may not inflict obscene or profane language upon the public.

There is no subject to which it is more difficult to apply this principle than the subject of the use of alcoholic beverages. On the one hand, it is absolutely certain that the sale of such beverages, *as at present conducted*, costs the community an enormous sum in hospitals, poorhouses, jails, and criminal courts. This is the practically unanimous testimony of all students: judges on the bench, professors of political economy, experts in criminology, social statisticians. On the other hand, it is equally certain that, whatever may be the effect of the moderate use of such beverages on the individual, such moderate use inflicts no immediate and recognized injury on the community. Some years ago The Outlook made a careful examination into the social conditions of a ward which of all wards in New York City had almost if not quite the greatest number of licensed liquor-shops. To our surprise, we found that it was the one ward in which at times twenty-four hours went by without any arrest for crime or disturbance of any kind. There was scarcely a whisky-saloon in the ward, and very few Irish or Americans; the population was Bohemian, and the liquor-stores were beer-saloons. The lawmaker must recognize the fact that some forms of liquor-drinking inflict enormous wrong on the community, and that other forms of drinking do not; his problem is to protect the public from the injuries inflicted by the former, and not to interfere with the latter. He must protect

the innocent from injuries inflicted by others; he is not to protect the individual from the consequences of his own folly, or even of his own wrong-doing.

To restate the problem in another way: The lawmaker must recognize in the law alike the conscience of the total abstainer and the conscience of the moderate drinker. He must not assume that one has a conscience and the other has none, nor so frame the law as to enforce the conscience of the one upon the conduct of the other. There are some who regard alcohol in all its forms as a poison, never under any circumstances to be taken into the human body; there are others who are of the opinion of the German woman in Pennsylvania who said: "I hear that there are people pretending to be Christians who will not drink beer. But, for my part, I do not see how one can be a Christian and refuse so good a gift of God as beer." How are these two classes to live peaceably together in a free community? The mere rule of the majority affords no basis for such a common life. This rule will leave the community which is dominated by the German sentiment without any liquor laws and with the unrestrained sale of liquor; it will leave the community which is dominated by the total abstainer without any liquor, and the moderate drinker perpetually angered by what he regards as interference with his natural right to determine the question of diet for himself; and it will leave the community in which both classes live side by side in a perpetual conflict and the liquor question always in politics. There must be some better way than this to make liberty and protection live peaceably together.

Are there any limits to the rights of a majority; if so, what are they? If the majority thinks, as many do think, that the use of tea and coffee are injurious, have they a right to prohibit the sale of tea and coffee? If they think the eating of pie produces dyspepsia, and makes the children pale, cadaverous, thin-blooded, and inefficient, have they a right to prohibit the sale of pie? Has a community in which the majority are vegetarians a right to prohibit the sale of meat, because, in their judgment, it makes men bloodthirsty, and leads to quarrels, crimes of violence, and war? We shall all agree, probably, that there is some limit to the moral right of the majority other than that determined by its political power. What is that limit? The answer is: It has a moral

right to do whatever in its judgment is necessary to protect the innocent from the wrongdoing of others—whether it be intentionally criminal or merely ignorantly careless; but it has no moral right, in criminal legislation, to do more. It is by the application of this principle, with possible modifications and exceptions, that the answer is to be found. How shall the total abstainer and the moderate drinker live peaceably together? The moderate drinker must recognize that it is the function of law to protect the community from the enormous injuries which result from the unrestricted and unregulated sale of liquor; and the total abstainer must recognize the right of the moderate drinker to purchase and drink intoxicating liquors under conditions which do not inflict direct injuries upon others.

The first result of the recognition of this principle would be vigorous legal measures to protect the community at large and all individuals in the community against the injuries inflicted by drunkenness. A man may have a right to drink; but he has no right to indulge in drink to such an extent as to make himself offensive to others in public places, or to be dangerous to the members of his family at home, or to incapacitate himself for their support, and so throw on the community the burden which it belongs to him to bear. The law ought not to treat drinking as a crime; but it ought to treat drunkenness as a crime. Every drunken man ought to be arrested; every habitual drunkard ought to be sent to a reformatory and kept there until cured, even if that requires a life imprisonment; every man incapacitating himself for the support of his family ought to be compelled to work, and the proceeds of his work used toward the support of his family; every saloon which turns drunken men out into the streets unable to take care of themselves, and every saloon which proves itself a source of public disorder, should be closed by law and not allowed to open again; the children should be protected from their own ignorance, and selling to minors should be prohibited and punished. This much, at least, the community and the innocent individuals in the community have a right to demand of the State.

Another result of this recognition of the twofold principle stated above—personal protection and personal liberty—would be local option: that is, the recognition of the right of each local community to determine

for itself the police regulations of the liquor traffic, leaving the State to punish violations of private rights and perpetration of public disorder by a law uniform in all localities. If the people of St. Lawrence County desire to abolish all saloons, why should New York City refuse them the liberty? If the people of New York City desire opportunities for drinking within limits that afford protection to others, why should the people of St. Lawrence County refuse them that liberty? The injuries produced by moderate drinking in New York City on the people of St. Lawrence County are remote, indirect, impossible to estimate. It is really not for their own protection that rural communities endeavor to determine by legislation the moral conditions of great cities. It is on the mistaken notion that in a free community the majority is *in loco parentis*, and is somehow responsible for the moral character and conduct of each local community, and each individual in the local community. And this is a mistaken notion. It has for its support neither a sound political economy nor a sound religion. Every individual must give account of himself to God, not only for his religious faith, but also for the ethical principles which determine his conduct. The limit of criminal legislation is protection of the otherwise unprotected.

The attempt to cope with the evils of the liquor traffic by allowing the conscience of one class in the community to regulate the habits of another class has been tried on a large scale, and, as regards the large cities, always unsuccessfully. It would be well to give an equally faithful trial to the other principle; to close by law those saloons which are direct sources of disaster and nurseries of crime; to tax all saloons with something like a fair proportion of the burdens which the saloons as a whole lay upon the community; to forbid open saloons at those hours of the night which experience proves are most coincident with public disorder; to discriminate, if possible, between the distilled liquors which provoke to violence and crime and the light wines and beers which do not; and to leave each local community to determine, within certain general restrictions imposed by the State, the police regulation of the traffic. Particularly, the State of New York should give to the great cities the right of legislation which it has given to the smaller towns, and should enable New York City, or more probably each Borough in that city, or

possibly each Ward or Election District, to decide for itself whether saloons should be open at all, and, if so, whether they should be open for any sale of liquor on any part of Sunday. Whatever the immediate consequences, we believe that the final result would be not only a purification of politics, from which the corrupting influences of the liquor traffic would be thus removed, but an increase of temperance in practice by the only method which promises enduring results—namely, that of remitting the question of self-control, as far as is consistent with public safety, to the individual himself.



Ease of Mood

Ease, it has been said, is the result of forgotten toil; and ease is essential to the man who works continuously and on a large scale. It is fortunate, rather than the reverse, when one's work is not easily done at the start; for early facility is often fatal to real proficiency. The man who does his work without effort at the beginning is tempted to evade the training and discipline which bring ease to the mind and the hand because both have learned the secret of the particular work and mastered the art of doing it with force and freedom. Facility is mere agility; ease comes from the perfect adjustment of the man to his tools, his materials, and his task. The facile man, as a rule, does his work with as little effort at twenty as at fifty; the man of trained skill does his work with increasing comfort and power. The first starts more readily; the second has the greater faculty of growth, and is more likely to become an artist in the end.

It is significant that the most original and capacious minds, like the most powerful bodies, often betray noticeable awkwardness at the start; they need prolonged exercise in order to secure freedom of movement; they must have time for growth. Minds of a certain superficial brilliancy, on the other hand, often mature early because they have so little depth and range. To be awkward in taking hold of one's work is not, therefore, a thing to be regretted; as a rule, it is a piece of good fortune.

But awkwardness must finally give place to ease if one is to do many things or great things, and do them well. Balzac wrote many stories before he secured harmony and force of style; but if, as the result of his long

apprenticeship, he had failed to secure these qualities, the creation of the "Comédie Humaine" would have been beyond his power. The work was so vast that no man could have accomplished it who had not learned to work rapidly and easily. For ease, when it is the result of toil, evidences the harmonious action of the whole nature; it indicates that mastery which comes to those only who see all the possibilities of the material in hand and readily put all their power into the shaping of it. A great work of art conveys an impression, not of effort, but of force and resource. One is convinced that Shakespeare could have written plays and Rembrandt painted portraits through an indefinite period of time without strain or exhaustion.

Strain and exhaustion are fatal to fine quality of work—exhaustion because it deprives work of vitality, and strain because it robs work of repose, harmony, and charm. It is interesting to note how deeply an audience enjoys ease in a speaker; when he seems to be entirely at home and to have complete command of his resources, his hearers throw off all apprehension, all fear, that their sympathies may be drawn upon, and give themselves up to the charm of beautiful or compelling speech. Let a speaker show embarrassment or anxiety, on the other hand, and his hearers instantly share his anxiety. There are speakers, moreover, who give no reason for any concern about their ability to deal with a subject or an occasion, but whose exertion is so evident that the audience, which is always sensitive to the psychologic condition of a speaker, is wearied and sometimes exhausted. It is one of the characteristics of art that it conceals all trace of toil; and a man's work never takes on the highest qualities until all evidences of labor and exertion are effaced from it.

Not many months ago the members of a court of very high standing expressed great pleasure in the prospect of hearing a certain lawyer of eminence on the following morning. These judges were elderly men, who had listened patiently through long years to arguments of all kinds, presented with all degrees of skill. They had doubtless traversed the whole field of jurisprudence many times, and could hardly anticipate any surprises of thought or novelties of argument. And yet these patient and long-suffering jurists were looking forward with delight to the opportunity of hearing another argument on an abstruse question of legal construc-

tion! The explanation of their interest was not far to seek. The jurist whose appearance before them was anticipated with so much pleasure is notable in his profession for ease of manner, which is in itself a very great charm. This ease invests his discussions of abstract or obscure questions with a grace and finish which are within the command of the artist only; and the artist is always fresh, delightful, and captivating.

Mr. Gladstone's friends recall as one of his captivating qualities the ease with which he seemed to do his work. He was never in haste; he always conveyed the impression of having ample time for his varied and important tasks. If he had felt the spur of haste, he would have lost his power of winning through that delightful old-fashioned courtesy which none could resist; if in his talks, his books, or his speeches there had been evidences of strain, he would not have kept to the end an influence which was due in no small measure to the impression of reserve power which he always conveyed.

Ease of mood is essential to long-sustained working power. The anxious man loses force, and the laborious man time, which cannot be spared from the greater tasks. Wellington used to say that a successful commander must do nothing which he could get other men to do; he must delegate all lesser tasks and relieve himself of all care of details, in order that he might concentrate his full force on the matter in hand. It is said that the most daring and compelling men are invariably cool and quiet in manner. Such men lose nothing by friction or waste of energy; they work with the ease which is born of toil.



The Spectator

The part the cable played in the war must have caught the attention of many others besides the Spectator. Almost at its opening, discussion began as to whether a cable owned by a neutral nation was or was not protected by civilized usage; whether, supposing we began the cable-cutting, the Spanish would be justified in retaliation and would be allowed to cut all the cables under the Atlantic Ocean. This discussion was soon relegated to a mere academic importance, but other phases of the cable have been constantly more or less conspicuous in the news. From the time that Dewey cut the cable at

Manila to the time when, just before the surrender of Santiago, the anchor of the Massachusetts fouled the last cable in its harbor, including the many perilous and brave attempts to cut cables at various minor points, the importance of the cable in modern war has been emphasized over and over again.



Most readers have, no doubt, had occasion to cable occasionally, those who are business men frequently. But the Spectator wonders how many of them have actually seen the cable "in operation"—that is, the operation of receiving and transmitting messages over it. The popular idea of a cable station (at least it was the Spectator's) is that of some lonely station at some practically uninhabited point, where the cable operators spend their days in very much the same isolation as do lighthouse keepers. Doubtless there are cable stations which answer to this description; at least the Spectator has been so told by his friends, the telegraph operators. The cable station which he himself saw, however, was not on the shore at all, but all of ten miles away from the point where the cables were landed. There was another temporary station at the point of landing, which the operators could work effectively in case of needed repairs, or if the shore end of one of the cables got out of order. The station in question was that of the Western Union in Penzance, a town of some thousands of people near the Cornwall coast of England. The house was like any other house, an old residence made over, and there was nothing about it except the sign to advertise its unique use. The room, too, where the operators were at work was in no striking way different from any room used for telegraphic purposes. The difference was principally in the fact that the operators did not "follow the ticker" on typewriters—in fact, did not copy off the sounds as they were transmitted, but transcribed the messages on rolls of sensitive paper soon covered with old-fashioned dots and dashes, just as used to be the case at ordinary telegraph offices before the days when operators became so expert as to read by sound.



The Spectator was told that this was not entirely due to the feebleness of the current over the thousands of miles of cable under the sea, although this was one reason for it.

Many cable messages are transmitted in cipher, and of course the sentences make next to no sense. As a mistake in the message might cost the company a large sum in damages, the utmost accuracy is necessary, and this can be attained much more surely with the record of an automatic instrument than through the ear of the operator. As operators must get used to all sorts of queer things, the Spectator was surprised to see one of them laugh as he copied off a certain message. By permission of the manager, who also seemed surprised, the Spectator had a chance to look over the operator's shoulder to see what it was that had brought a smile to his usually impassive face. The message came from some city in interior New York, and read something like this: "Darling: I cannot live without you. I think of you every night and morning. How much longer must we be separated?" The Spectator wondered a little whether this was a genuine message of affection from one lover to another, at a cost of twenty-five cents per word, or perhaps simply a code message, referring to some "wheat deal" or stock speculation. He never learned the fact, but has always been rather of the opinion that this distantly extravagant love-making was to be set down to an ardor that did not reckon the expense. While in the cable office there were shown to the Spectator the old appliances of lights and mirrors by which messages used to be transmitted in a darkened room before the present days of improved cables and increased strength of currents, when different words were denoted by the length and character of the flashes. This method, so he was told, was still resorted to at times when the feebleness of the current prevented the use of the ordinary instruments.



A thing which interested the Spectator very much was the constant communication which was kept up between that office in Penzance and the cable repair ship which then was somewhere across the ocean in the vicinity of Newfoundland. Such is the delicacy of the scientific tests that when a cable is "broken," as it is called, it is possible to determine within a mile, perhaps within even a half-mile, the point of breakage. All the repair ship has to do is to go to that point and grapple there for the end of the cable. With that on board, the ship can communi-

cate with the home station as easily as operators can send a message over a press wire between two distant points. In fact, daily and often hourly messages are sent, and the managers of the cable company know just how soon the cable will be in working order. The idea appealed to the Spectator vividly. There was the repair ship off the coast of Newfoundland, perhaps hidden in a fog, perhaps buffeted by a storm, perhaps with no land or other ship in sight, and yet able to send messages as easily and quickly and frequently as if the two points of connection were on shore. The thought suggested is perhaps fancifully impracticable, that sometime it may come about that ocean steamers will go out carrying cables with them, and thus be in constant communication with the land, even in mid-ocean. Should such a time ever come, the Spectator wonders whether it will not really see the end of one of the advantages of ocean travel—the complete rest that comes from the feeling that for a certain number of days one is entirely cut off from connection with the civilized world; that, whatever happens there, one is powerless to do anything, and must therefore drop worry and throw off anxiety. When Horace tells how “black care” follows the traveler across the sea, he surely does not mean that the ordinary cares of ordinary life can follow one during the time of voyage. Anxiety there may be, but not the continual worry that frets the soul. That is the blessed relief which comes when one loses sight of land as the steamer or ship moves out into the ocean.



One of the things in connection with cables which always amuses the Spectator is the attempt which amateurs so frequently make to construct a code that shall save money, let no one else into its secret, and at the same time be complete enough to cover all possible exigencies. When the Spectator was a boy, many, many years ago, among the few novels permitted to him despite the rigorous training of orthodox Congregationalism was a favorite of that day known as “Hope Leslie.” An incident of that novel, intended as a sarcastic argument against the use of the prayer-book, was the picture of an old lady on the frontier in the early days of the settlement of New England, alarmed at a rumor of an Indian uprising and searching anxiously through the prayer-book for some petition

adapted to the necessities of a person in danger of being scalped by savages. This story, whether strictly apropos or not, has often come back to the Spectator when he has marked the somewhat frantic efforts of people to use an amateur code, or to find the proper word for an exigency out of one of the published codes agreed upon before the friend went abroad. For example, in ante-bellum days, when the Spectator had a friend passing the winter of 1895-’96 in Madrid, and the friend’s family was anxious as to whether she had been hurt in the earthquake that then occurred, and whether an uprising at Barcelona was likely to extend to Madrid, to her peril, the code had to be thrown aside and a plain message in English cabled at no inconsiderable minor expense. There was nothing in the code which referred to dangers from earthquakes or from Barcelona uprisings. It was a case of the “Hope Leslie” prayer-book and the Indian outbreak over again.



But the difficulties do not always arise in that way. The Spectator has a friend, a New York artist, whose wife was abroad. Being, like other husbands who are not artistic, greatly dependent on his wife for knowing where things are, this artist could not find a certain rug which he wanted for use in a certain picture he was painting. He told his sister about it, and they searched the house in vain for that rug, but nowhere was it to be discovered. The sister was writing at that time to the artist’s wife, and in her letter she mentioned the vain search for the rug, thinking nothing about it, and meanwhile going off on a visit. During her absence the artist received a cable, which for the sake of economy was made as brief as possible, and read: “Cottage—rug.” He could make nothing out of it at all. He supposed that the word “rug” had been misspelled, or that probably it was one of those queer code words which mean something very different from what they purport to mean. He searched his code through in vain under “rug” and “drug,” and all other possible combinations of r-u-g, or variations. Fearing that something serious had happened, he sent a long and expensive cable of inquiry, and received in reply an equally long and expensive cable of explanation, which was that the rug he was looking for was in the family seashore cottage, distant three

hundred miles. Altogether that cable cost him about ten dollars, to say nothing of the worry.



There is another story which the Spectator always thinks of in this connection. It concerns a family some of whose younger members were traveling abroad. The folks at home, not having heard from them for some time, thought it would be well to inform them that everything was all right, and so cabled the simple words, "All well." The party abroad could not believe that the fam-

ily at home would take the trouble to cable "All well" unless there had been some serious sickness, or some other cause for previous anxiety. So the trip was broken off short, and the travelers cabled, "We have sailed on the ——." This puzzled the family at home as much as the previous cable had puzzled the members abroad. The explanations exchanged on the wharf where the family was reunited were emphatic in their mutual disgust. The Spectator thinks it wise to draw a veil over some of the language used. It was not of a kind to illustrate family affection.

George Kennan's Story of the War

The Santiago Campaign—II.

WHEN, on the 14th of June, General Shafter's army sailed for the southeastern coast of Cuba, without adequate facilities for disembarkation, and without a sufficient number of mules, packers, teamsters, and army wagons to insure its proper equipment, subsistence, and maintenance in the field, it was, *ipso facto*, predestined to serious embarrassment and difficulty, if not to great suffering and peril. No amount of zeal, energy, and ability on the part of quartermasters and commissaries, after the army had reached its destination, could possibly make up for deficiencies that should have had attention before the army sailed. Boats, mules, and wagons were not to be had at Siboney, and when the urgent need of them became apparent it was too late to procure them from the United States. General Shafter cabled the War Department for lighters and steam tugs almost as soon as he reached the Cuban coast, and General Miles telegraphed for more draught animals before he had been in Siboney twenty-four hours; but neither the boats nor the mules came in time to be of any avail. Cuban fever waits for no man, and before the boats that should have landed more supplies and the mules that should have carried them to the front reached Siboney, seventy-five per cent. of General Shafter's command had been prostrated by disease, due, as he himself admits, to insufficient food, "without change of clothes and without any shelter whatever." (Telegram of General Shafter to the President, August 8.)

But the lack of adequate land and water

transportation was not the only deficiency in the equipment of the Fifth Army Corps when it sailed from Tampa. It was also ill provided with medical stores and the facilities and appliances needed in caring for sick and wounded soldiers. Dr. Nicholas Senn, chief of the operating staff of the army, says that "ambulances in great number had been sent to Tampa, but they were not unloaded and sent to the front." I myself passed a whole train-load of ambulances near Tampa in May, but I never saw more than three in use at the front, and, according to the official report of Dr. Guy C. M. Godfrey, commanding officer of the hospital corps company of the First Division, Fifth Army Corps, "the number of ambulances for the entire army was limited to three, and it was impossible to expect them to convey the total number of wounded from the collecting stations to the First Division hospital." (Report to the Surgeon-General from Santiago, July 28.)

The Surgeon-General declares, in a letter to the "Medical Record," dated August 6, that "General Shafter's army at Tampa was thoroughly well supplied with the necessary medicines, dressings, etc., for field service; but, owing to insufficient transportation, he left behind at Tampa his reserve medical supplies and ambulance corps."

General Shafter himself admits that he had not enough medical supplies, but seems to assert, by implication, that he was not to blame for the deficiency. In a telegram to Adjutant-General Corbin, dated Santiago, August 3, he says: "From the day this expedition left Tampa until to-day there has never

been sufficient medical attendance or medicines for the daily wants of the command, and three times within that time the command has been almost totally out of medicines. I say this on the word of the medical directors, who have in each instance reported the matter to me, the last time yesterday, when the proposition was made to me to take medicines away from the Spanish hospital. . . . The surgeons have worked as well as any men that ever lived, and their complaint has been universal of lack of means and facilities. I do not complain of this, for no one could have foreseen all that would be required; but I will not quietly submit to having the onus laid on me for the lack of these hospital facilities."

The state of affairs disclosed by these official reports and telegrams seems to me as melancholy and humiliating as anything of the kind ever recorded in the history of American wars. Three ambulances for a whole corps of 16,000 men; an army "almost totally out of medicines" three times in seven weeks; and a proposition to make up our own deficiencies by seizing and confiscating the medical supplies of a Spanish hospital! I do not wonder that General Shafter wishes to escape responsibility for such a manifestation of negligence or incompetence; but I do not see how he can be allowed to do so. It is just as much the business of a commanding general to know that he has medicines and ambulances enough as it is to know that he has food and ammunition enough. He is the man who plans the campaign, and, to a certain extent, predetermines the number of sick and wounded; he is the man who makes requisition upon the War Department for transports, mules, and wagons enough to carry the army and its equipment to the field where it is to operate; and he is the man who should consider all contingencies and emergencies likely to arise as a result of climatic or other local conditions, and who should see that ample provision is made for them. General Shafter says that "no one could have foreseen all that would be required." That is probably true; but any one, it seems to me, could have foreseen that an army of 16,000 men, which was expected to attack intrenched positions, would need more than three ambulances for the transportation of the wounded—to say nothing of the sick. The same remark applies to medicines and medical supplies. Every one knew that our army was going to a very unhealthful region,

and it was not difficult to foresee that it would require perhaps two or three times the quantity of medical supplies that would be needed in a temperate climate and a more healthful environment. The very reason assigned for General Shafter's hurried advance toward Santiago is that he knew his army would soon be disabled by disease, and wished to strike a decisive blow while his men were still able to fight. If he anticipated the wrecking of his army by sickness that could not be averted nor long delayed, why did he not make sure, before he left Tampa, that he had medical supplies and hospital facilities enough to meet the inevitable emergency? His telegram to Adjutant-General Corbin seems to indicate that he was not only unprepared for an emergency, but unprepared to meet even the ordinary demands of an army in the field, inasmuch as he declares, without limitation or qualification, that from the 14th of June to the 3d of August he never had medicines enough for the daily wants of his command.

It may be thought that the view here taken of the responsibility of the commanding general for everything that pertains to the well-being and the fighting efficiency of his command is too extreme and exacting, and that he ought not to be held personally accountable for the mistakes or the incompetence of his staff officers. Waiving a discussion of this question on its merits, it need only be said that, inasmuch as General Shafter has officially recommended all of his staff officers for promotion, on account of "faithful and meritorious services throughout the campaign," he is estopped from saying now that they did not do their duty, or that they made errors of judgment so serious as to imperil the lives of men, if not the success of the expedition. The responsibility for the lack of medical supplies and hospital facilities, therefore, as well as the responsibility for the lack of boats, mules, and wagons, must rest either upon the War Department or upon the General in command. If the latter made timely requisition for them, and for transports enough to carry them to the Cuban coast, and failed to obtain either or both, the War Department must be held accountable; while, on the other hand, if General Shafter did not ask for medical supplies enough to meet the probable wants of his army in a tropical climate and an unhealthful environment, he must shoulder the responsibility for his own negligence or want of foresight.

I shall now try to show how this lack of

boats, mules, wagons, and medical supplies affected General Shafter's command in the field.

II. The landing at Baiquiri and Siboney.

The points selected for the disembarkation of the army and the landing of supplies were the best, perhaps, that could be found between Santiago Harbor and Guantanamo Bay; but they were little more, nevertheless, than shallow notches in the coast-line, which afforded neither anchorage nor shelter from the prevailing wind. There was one small pier erected by the Spanish-American Iron Company at Baiquiri, but at Siboney there were no landing facilities whatever, and the strip of beach at the bottom of the wedge-shaped notch in the precipitous wall of the coast was hardly more than one hundred yards in length. The water deepened so suddenly and abruptly at a distance of fifty yards from the shore that there was practically no anchorage, and General Shafter's fleet of more than thirty transports had to lie in what was virtually an open roadstead and drift back and forth with the currents and tides. The prevailing winds were from the east and southeast, and the long swell which rolled in from the Caribbean Sea broke in heavy and at times dangerous surf upon the narrow strip of unsheltered beach where the army had to land. All of these local conditions were known, or might have been known, to General Shafter before he left Tampa; but when he arrived off the coast they seemed to take him wholly by surprise. He had brought with him neither surf-boats, nor steam launches, nor suitable lighters, nor materials with which to construct a pier. How he ever would have disembarked his command without the assistance of the navy, I do not know. I doubt whether a landing could have been effected at all. Fortunately, the navy was at hand, and its small boats and steam launches, manned by officers and sailors from the fleet, landed the whole army through the surf with the loss of only two men. The navy then retired from the scene of action and General Shafter was left to his own devices—and deplorably weak and ineffective they proved to be. The engineer corps found near the railroad at Siboney a few sticks of heavy timber belonging to the Iron Company, out of which they improvised a small, narrow pier; but it was soon undermined and knocked to pieces by the surf.¹

¹ Another and a somewhat larger and better pier was built later.

The chief quartermaster discovered on or near the beach three or four old lighters, also belonging to the Iron Company, which he used to supplement the service rendered by the single scow attached to the expedition; but as he put them in charge of soldiers, who had had no experience in handling boats in broken water, they were soon stove against the corners of the pier, or swamped in the heavy surf that swept the beach. All that could be done then was to land supplies as fast as possible in the small rowboats of the transports. If General Shafter had had competent and experienced officers to put in command of these boats and steam launches to tow them back and forth in strings or lines of half a dozen each, and if he had made provision for communication with the captains of the steamers by means of wigwag flag signals, so as to be able to give them orders and control their movements, he might have landed supplies in this way with some success. But none of the difficulties of the situation had been foreseen, and no arrangements had been made to cope with them. The captains of the transports put their vessels wherever they chose, and when a steamer that lay four or five miles at sea was wanted closer in shore, there was no means of sending orders to her except by rowboat. The captains, as a rule, did not put officers in charge of their boats, and the sailors who manned them, having no competent direction, acted upon their own judgment. Finally, boats which could have made a round trip between the transports and the shore in half an hour if towed by a steam launch, often used up the greater part of two hours in toiling back and forth through a heavy sea under oars.

It is not a matter for surprise that, with such facilities and under such conditions, General Shafter found it almost impossible to land even food and ammunition enough to keep his army properly supplied. In his official report of the campaign he says: "It was not until nearly two weeks after the army landed that it was possible to place on shore three days' supplies in excess of those required for daily consumption."

In addition to all the unnecessary difficulties and embarrassments above described, there was another, almost, if not quite, as serious, arising from the manner in which the transports had been loaded at Tampa. Stores were put into the steamers, apparently, without any reference to the circumstances under

which they would be taken out, and without any regard to the order in which they would be needed at the point of destination. Medical supplies, for example, instead of being put all together in a single transport, were scattered among twenty or more vessels, so that in order to get all of them it was necessary either to bring twenty steamers close to shore, one after another, and take a little out of each, or send rowboats around to them all where they lay at distances ranging from one mile to five. (Report of Dr. Edward L. Munson to the Surgeon-General, dated July 29.) Articles of equipment that would be required as soon as the army landed were often buried in the holds of the vessels under hundreds of tons of stuff that would not be needed in a week, and the army went forward without them, simply because they could not be quickly gotten at. Finally, I am inclined to believe, from what I saw and heard of the landing of supplies at Siboney, that there was not such a thing as a bill of lading, manifest, or cargo list in existence, and that the chief quartermaster had no other guide to the location of a particular article than that furnished by his own memory, or the memory of some first mate. I do not assert this as a fact—I merely infer it from the difficulty that there seemed to be in finding and getting ashore quickly a particular kind of stores for which there happened to be an immediate and urgent demand. After the fight of the Rough Riders at Guasimas, for example, General Wood found himself short of ammunition for his Hotchkiss rapid-fire guns. He sent Lieutenant Kilbourne back to General Shafter at Siboney with a request that a fresh supply be forwarded at the earliest possible moment. General Shafter said that he had no idea where that particular kind of ammunition was to be found, and referred the applicant to Chief Quartermaster Jacobs at Baiquiri. Lieutenant Kilbourne walked seven miles to Baiquiri, only to find that the Chief Quartermaster had no more idea where that ammunition was than the commanding General had. He thereupon returned to Guasimas, after a march of more than twenty miles, and reported to General Wood that ammunition for the rapid-fire guns could not be had, because nobody knew where it was. If the commanding General and the Chief Quartermaster could not put their hands on ammunition when it was needed, they could hardly be expected to find, and forward promptly, articles of less vital importance,

such as camp-kettles, hospital tents, clothing, and spare blankets.

It would be easy to fill pages with illustrations and proofs of the statements above made, but I must limit myself to a typical case or two relating to medical supplies, which seem to have been most neglected.

In a report to Surgeon-General Sternberg dated July 29, Dr. Edward L. Munson, commander of the reserve ambulance company, says that for two days after his arrival at Siboney he was unable to get any transportation whatever for medical supplies from the ships to the shore. On the third day he was furnished with one rowboat, but even this was taken away from him, when it had made one trip, by direct order of General Shafter, who wished to assign it to other duty. Some days later, with the boats of the Olivette, Cherokee, and Breakwater, he succeeded in landing medical supplies from perhaps one-third of the transports composing the fleet. "I appealed on several occasions," he says, "for the use of a lighter, or small steamer, to collect and land medical supplies, but I was informed by the Quartermaster's Department that they could render no assistance in that way. . . . At the time of my departure large quantities of medical supplies, urgently needed on shore, still remained on the transports, a number of which were under orders to return to the United States." "In conclusion," he adds, "it is desired to emphasize the fact that the lamentable conditions prevailing in the army before Santiago were due (1) to the military necessity which threw troops on shore and away from the possibility of supply, without medicines, instruments, or hospital stores of any kind; and (2) to the lack of foresight on the part of the Quartermaster's Department in sending out such an expedition without fully anticipating its needs as regards temporary wharfage, lighters, tugs, and dispatch-boats."

Dr. Frank Donaldson, assistant surgeon attached to Colonel Roosevelt's Rough Riders, states in a letter to the "Philadelphia Medical Journal," dated July 12, that "a desperate effort" was made to secure a few cots for the sick and wounded in the field hospitals at the front. There were hundreds of these cots, he says, on one of the transports off Siboney, but it proved to be utterly impossible to get any of them landed. Whether they were all carried back to the United States or not I do not know; but large quantities of supplies, intended for General

Shafter's army, *were* carried back on the transports Alamo, Breakwater, Vigilancia, and La Grande Duchesse.

I do not mean to throw any undeserved blame upon the quartermasters and commissaries at Siboney. Many of them worked day and night with indefatigable energy to get supplies on shore and forward them to the army; but they were hampered by conditions over which they had no control, and for which, perhaps, they were not in any way responsible; they were often unable to obtain the assistance of steamer captains and other officers upon whose co-operation the success of their own efforts depended, and they probably did all that could be done by individuals acting as separate units rather than as correlated parts of an organized and intelligently directed whole. The trouble at Siboney was the same trouble that became apparent at Tampa. There was, at the head of affairs, no controlling, directing, and energizing brain, capable of grasping all the details of a complex situation and making all the parts of a complicated mechanism work harmoniously together for the accomplishment of a definite purpose.

III. The strategic plan of campaign and its execution.

As this branch of the subject will be discussed—if it has not already been discussed—by better-equipped critics than I can pretend to be, I shall limit myself to a brief review of the campaign in its strategic aspect as it appears from the standpoint of a civilian.

I understand, from officers who were in a position to know the facts, that the original plan of attack on the city of Santiago provided for close and effective co-operation of the army with the navy, and for a joint assault by way of Aguadores and Morro Castle. General Shafter was to move along the line of the railroad from Siboney to Aguadores, keeping close to the coast under cover of the guns of the fleet, and, with the assistance of the latter, was to capture the old Aguadores fort and such other intrenchments as should be found at the mouth of the Aguadores ravine. This, it was thought, might be accomplished with very little loss, because the fleet could shell the Spaniards out of their fortifications, and thus make it possible for the army to occupy them without much fighting. Having taken Aguadores, General Shafter was to continue his march westward along the coast, still under the protection of Ad-

miral Sampson's guns, until he reached Morro. Then, without attempting to storm or reduce the Castle, he was to go down through the ravine that leads to the head of Estrella cove, and seize the submarine-mine station at the mouth of Santiago Harbor. When electrical connection between the station and the mines had been destroyed and the mines had thus been rendered harmless, Admiral Sampson was to force an entrance, fighting his way in past the batteries, and the army and fleet were then to advance northward toward the city along the eastern side of the bay.

This plan had many obvious advantages, the most important of which was the aid and protection that would be given to the army, at every stage of its progress, by the guns of perhaps thirty or forty ships of war. In the opinion of naval officers, Admiral Sampson's cruisers and battle-ships could sweep the country ahead of our advance with such a storm of shot and shell that the Spaniards would not be able to hold any position within a mile of the coast. All that the army would have to do, therefore, would be to occupy the country as fast as it was cleared by the fire of the fleet, and then open the harbor to the latter by cutting communication with the submarine mines which were the only effective defense that the city had on the water side. General Shafter's army, moreover, would be all the time on high, sea-breeze-swept land, and therefore comparatively safe from malarial fever, and it would not only have a railroad behind it for the transportation of its supplies, but be constantly within easy reach of its base by water.

Why this plan was eventually given up I do not know. In abandoning it General Shafter voluntarily deprived himself of the aid that might have been rendered by three or four hundred high-powered and rapid-fire guns, backed by a trained fighting force of six or eight thousand men. I do not know the exact strength of Sampson's and Schley's combined fleets; but this seems to me to be a conservative estimate. A prominent officer of the battle-ship Iowa told me in Santiago, after the surrender, that the fighting ships under Admiral Sampson's command, including the auxiliary cruisers and mosquito fleet, could concentrate on any given field a fire of about one hundred shells a second. This included, of course, small projectiles from the rapid-fire and one-pound machine guns. He did not think it possible for Spanish infantry

to live—much less fight—in the field swept by such a fire, and this was his reason for believing that the fleet could have cleared the way for the army if the latter had advanced along the coast instead of going back into the interior. The plan of attack by way of Aguadores and Morro was regarded by the foreign residents of Santiago as the one most likely to succeed; and a gentleman who lived eight years at Baquiri, as manager of the Spanish-American Iron Company, and who is familiar with the topography of the whole region, writes me: "I have always thought that the great mistake of the Santiago campaign was that they assaulted the city at its most impregnable point, instead of taking possession of the heights at Aguadores, which would have been tantamount to the fall of Morro, the possession of the harbor entrance and of the harbor itself. The forces of the Spaniards were not sufficient to maintain any considerable number of men there, and it seems to me that, with the help of the fleet shelling the heights, they could have been reached very easily along the Juragua Railroad. If General Duffield had pressed on when he was there, it is probable that he would have met with only a thin skirmish-line, or, if the fleet had done its work, with no resistance at all."

The reason assigned for General Shafter's advance through the valleys and over the foot-hills of the interior, instead of along the high land of the coast, is that he had been ordered to "capture the garrison at Santiago and assist in capturing the harbor and the fleet." He did not believe, it is said, that he could "capture the garrison" without completely investing the city on the east and north. If he attacked it from the southern, or Morro side, he might take the city, but the garrison would escape by the Cobre or the San Luis road. This seems like a valid and reasonable objection to the original plan of campaign; but I doubt very much whether the Spanish army would have tried to escape in any event, for the reason that the surrounding country was almost wholly destitute of food, and General Linares, in the hurry and confusion of defeat, would hardly have been able to organize a provision train for an army of eight or ten thousand men, even if he had had provisions to carry. The only place where he could hope to find food in any quantity was Manzanillo, and to reach that port he would have had to make a forced march of from twelve to fifteen days. But

the question whether the interior line of advance or the coast line was the better must be left to strategists, and I express no opinion with regard to it.

The operations and maneuvers of our army in front of Santiago have already been described and commented upon by a number of expert observers, and the only additional criticisms that I have to make relate to General Shafter's neglect of reconnaissances, as a means of ascertaining the enemy's strength and position; his apparent loss of grip after the battle of July 1-2; and his failure, not only to prevent, but to take any adequate steps to prevent, the reinforcement of the Santiago garrison by a column of five thousand regulars from Manzanillo under command of Colonel Escarrio. If I am correctly informed, the only reconnaissances made from the front of our army, after it came within striking distance of the enemy's entrenched line, were made by General Chaffee and a few other commanding officers upon their own responsibility and for their own information. General Shafter knew little more about the topography of the country in front of his advance picket-line than could be ascertained by mere inspection from the top of a hill. He received information to the effect that General Pando, with a strong column of Spanish regulars, was approaching Santiago from the direction of Manzanillo; but he never took any adequate steps to ascertain where General Pando was, when and by what road he might be expected to arrive, or how many men he was bringing with him. In the course of a single day—July 3—Shafter sends three telegrams to the War Department with regard to the whereabouts of Pando, and in each of them he locates that officer in a different place. In the first one he says, "Pando has arrived at Palma" (a village about twenty-five miles northwest of Santiago on the Cobre road). In the second he declares that Pando is "six miles north of Santiago," "near a break in the [San Luis] railroad," and that he thinks "he will be stopped." In the third he says, "Pando, I find to-night, is some distance away and will not get into Santiago."

We know now—and General Shafter should have known then—that the column of reinforcements from Manzanillo was not led by General Pando, but by Colonel Escarrio; and that at the very time when Shafter, in successive telegrams, was placing it "at Palma;" "six miles north;" "near a break

in the railroad;" and "some distance away," it was actually in the Santiago intrenchments, ready for business.

I take this case as an illustration on account of its extreme importance. A column of five thousand Spanish regulars is not to be despised; and when it is within a few days'—or perhaps a few hours'—march, knowledge of its exact location may be a matter of life and death to a thousand men. Was there any reason why General Shafter should not have informed himself accurately with regard to the strength and the position of this column of reinforcements? I think not. When Admiral Sampson arrived off the entrance to Santiago Harbor, it was of vital importance that he should know with certainty the location of Cervera's fleet. He did not hastily telegraph the War Department that it was reported at Cienfuegos; that it was said to be in the Windward Passage; that it was five miles north of Morro, or that it was near a reef in the Este Channel and would be stopped. He sent Lieutenant Victor Blue ashore to make a thorough and careful reconnaissance. Lieutenant Blue made a difficult and dangerous journey of seventy miles, on foot, around the city of Santiago; saw, personally, every vessel in the harbor; and then returned to the flagship, and reported that Cervera's fleet was all there. I don't know whether this was good strategy on the part of Admiral Sampson or not, but it was certainly good common sense. Suppose that General Shafter had asked General Wood to pick out from the Rough Riders half a dozen experienced scouts and Indian fighters to make a reconnaissance, with Cuban guides, in the direction of Manzanillo, and ascertain exactly where that column of reinforcements was, and when it might be expected to arrive. Would not the men have been forthcoming, and would not the desired information have been obtained? I have confidence enough in the Rough Riders to answer this question emphatically in the affirmative. The capable men are not all in the navy, and if General Shafter did not have full information with regard to Colonel Escarrio's movements, it was simply because he did not ask any of his officers or men to get it for him—and it was information well worth having! If that column of five thousand Spanish regulars had reached Santiago two days earlier—the evening before instead of the morning after the battle of July 1 and 2—I doubt very much

whether we should have taken either Caney or San Juan Hill, and General Shafter might have had better reason than he did have to "consider the advisability of falling back to a position five miles in the rear." (Statement furnished to the press by General Miles, September 8, 1898.)

If General Shafter believed that these Spanish reinforcements were "some distance away" and that they would "not get into Santiago," it is difficult to understand why he should have so far lost his grip, after the capture of Caney and San Juan Hill, as to telegraph the War Department that he was "seriously considering the advisability of falling back to a position five miles in the rear." His troops had not been defeated, nor even repulsed; they had been victorious at every point; and the Spaniards, as we afterward learned in Santiago, were momentarily expecting them to move another mile to the front, rather than five miles to the rear. It is the belief of many foreign residents of Santiago, including the English cable operators, who had the best possible means of knowing the views of the Spanish commanders, that if our army had continued the attack after capturing Caney and San Juan Hill, it might have entered the city before dark. This may or may not be so; but the chance—if chance there was—vanished when Colonel Escarrio, on the morning after the battle, marched around the head of the bay and into the city with a reinforcing column of five thousand regulars. General Shafter says, in his official report, that "the arrival of General Escarrio was not anticipated" because "it was not believed that his troops could arrive so soon." The time when a reinforcing column of five thousand men will reach the enemy ought not to be a matter of vague belief—it should be a matter of accurate foreknowledge; and if General Shafter had sent a couple of officers with a few Rough Riders out on the roads leading into Santiago from Manzanillo, he might have had information that would have made the arrival of Colonel Escarrio less unexpected. But he seems to have taken no steps either to ascertain the movements of the latter or to prevent his junction with Linares.

General O. O. Howard, in an interview published in the New York "Tribune" of September 14, 1898, explains the apparent indifference of General Shafter to the approach of these reinforcements as follows:

"In regard to the Cubans allowing the Spanish reinforcements to enter Santiago from Manzanillo, I would say that I met General Shafter on board the Vixen, and from my conversation with him I infer that he intended to allow the Spaniards to enter the city, so as to have them where he could punish them more."

It is to be hoped that General Howard misunderstood General Shafter, because such strategy as that indicated would suggest the tactics of the pugnacious John Phoenix, who, in a fight in the editorial room, put his nose into the mouth of his adversary in order to hold the latter more securely.

The explanation of the entrance of the Spanish reinforcements given by General Shafter in his official report of the campaign is as follows:

"General Garcia, with between four and five thousand Cubans, was intrusted with the duty of watching for and intercepting the reinforcements expected. This, however, he failed to do; and Escarrio passed into the city along my extreme right and near the bay."

General Garcia himself, however, in his report to his own Government, states that he was directed by General Shafter to occupy and hold a certain position on the right wing of the army, and that, without disobeying orders and leaving that position, he could not possibly intercept the Manzanillo troops.

As it happened, Escarrio's column did not

become a controlling or decisive factor in the campaign; and the question why he was allowed to reinforce the Santiago garrison has therefore only a speculative interest. If, however, these reinforcements had happened to arrive two days earlier—in time to take part in the battle of July 1-2—the whole course of events might have been changed. The Spanish garrison of the city, according to the English cable operators and the foreign residents, consisted of three thousand regulars, fifteen hundred to two thousand volunteers, and about one thousand sailors and marines from Cervera's fleet—a force, all together, of not more than six thousand men. This comparatively small army, fighting in intrenchments and in almost impregnable positions, came so near repulsing our attack on the 1st of July that General Shafter "seriously considered the advisability of falling back to a position five miles in the rear." If the six thousand men in the Spanish blockhouses and rifle-pits had been reinforced July 1 instead of July 3 by the five thousand regulars from Manzanillo, the Santiago campaign might have ended in a great disaster. Fortunately for General Shafter, and unfortunately for General Toral, "So corro de España ó tarde ó nunca"—"Spanish reinforcements arrive late or never."

In the concluding article of this series I shall consider the wrecking of General Shafter's army by disease, and the reasons for it.

GEORGE KENNAN.

The Scorn of Job

By the Bishop of Derry and Raphoe

(Job xxxi., 17)

"If I have eaten my morsel alone!"

The patriarch spoke in scorn:

What would he think of the Church, were he shown

Heathendom, huge, forlorn,
Godless, Christless, with soul unfed,
While the Church's ailment is fulness of bread,
Eating her morsel alone?

"I am debtor alike to the Jew and the Greek,"

The mighty apostle cried;

Traversing continents, souls to seek,
For the love of the Crucified.
Centuries, centuries since have sped;
Millions are famishing; we have bread,
But we eat our morsel alone.

Ever of them who have largest dower

Shall heaven require the more.

Ours is affluence, knowledge, power,

Ocean from shore to shore;

And East and West in our ears have said,

"Give us, give us your living Bread."

Yet we eat our morsel alone.

"Freely, as ye have received, so give,"

He bade, who hath given us all.

How shall the soul in us longer live,

Deaf to their starving call,

For whom the blood of the Lord was shed,

And his body broken to give them Bread,

If we eat our morsel alone?

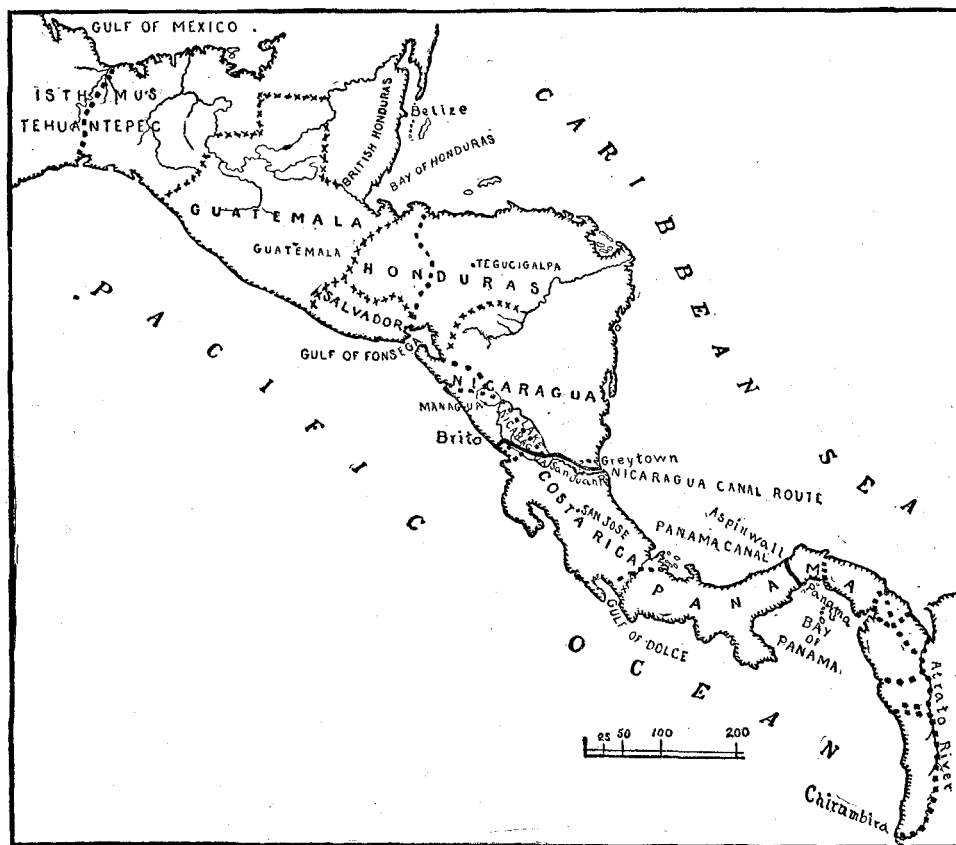
—Church Missionary Intelligencer.

The Nicaragua Canal: A Review

By Charles B. Spahr

THE plan of a canal across the American Isthmus is over three centuries old, but its age, so far from being a sign of decrepitude, is proof of its inexhaustible vitality. Hardly had the Spaniards begun to exploit the resources of Peru before commerce across the Isthmus became important. Then, as now, nearly all of it took two routes: across the short but difficult and unhealthy route at Panama, or across the longer but easier and more wholesome route through Nicaragua. The Panama route was the first to be developed, but the great bulk of trans-isthmian trade was, after a few years,

bringing Peru about five thousand miles nearer Spain than by way of Cape Horn, was first projected, the Emperor Ferdinand proposed that the cut should be made at Panama; but his successor, Philip, in view of the causes which were diverting trade to the northern route, made his plans for a canal across Nicaragua. During Philip's reign commerce was already important enough to have made the construction of this canal form one of the first purposes of the Empire, had not his European ambitions, and the disasters to which they led his country, made this trans-Atlantic enterprise impossible. During the



NICARAGUA AND PANAMA CANAL ROUTES

The broken lines are projected routes, and cross lines represent the boundary of different countries.

transferred to its northern rival. This order of development has followed these two routes from the sixteenth century until now.

When a canal joining the two seas, and

two succeeding centuries the project of the canal was almost lost sight of in the political world, but continued to appeal to the imagination of scientists. At the close of the

eighteenth century Von Humboldt made his famous explorations wherever it was possible to penetrate through Spanish America, and brought as his report that the Isthmus of Nicaragua, and a longer route at the southern extremity of the Isthmus of Darien, seemed to him "the most favorable for the formation of canals of large dimensions." Soon after his report was made, a liberal Cortes, called together at the attempted establishment of a constitutional monarchy, revived the project of Ferdinand and Philip; but with the return of absolutism, and the comparative failure of private capitalistic enterprise in Spain, the hope of carrying out these projects passed to the nations of the north and west.

Our own Nation became interested in the projected canal as a result of the popular enthusiasm which the assertion of the Monroe Doctrine awakened throughout the country. When nearly our whole people accepted Jefferson's proposition that "our first and fundamental maxim should be, never to entangle ourselves in the broils of Europe; our second, never to suffer Europe to intermeddle with cis-Atlantic affairs," our Nation definitely assumed a kind of protectorate over the younger republics of the South—guarding them, not against internal broils, but against external coercion. They on their part accepted our leadership enthusiastically, and asked us to take part in a Congress of American Republics at Panama, where the canal project was among those discussed. Unfortunately, our Nation was kept from sending representatives to this Congress because of the fear of our Senate that the institution of slavery would be discussed, and that the uncompromising hostility of the Spanish-American republicans towards slavery would be made to throw discredit upon our own cherished institution. Our seeming apathy, at that time, however, did not prevent us from vigorously reasserting the Monroe Doctrine when, because of our failure to co-operate with the Spanish-American Republics at this conference, the King of Holland placed himself at the head of a company for the construction of a canal through Nicaragua. President Jackson then declared that our Government could not consent to European possession of the exclusive right of way across Central America, which the Dutch company had obtained. Our opposition added to the natural difficulties of the plan, and led the Dutch company to abandon the project. President Jackson

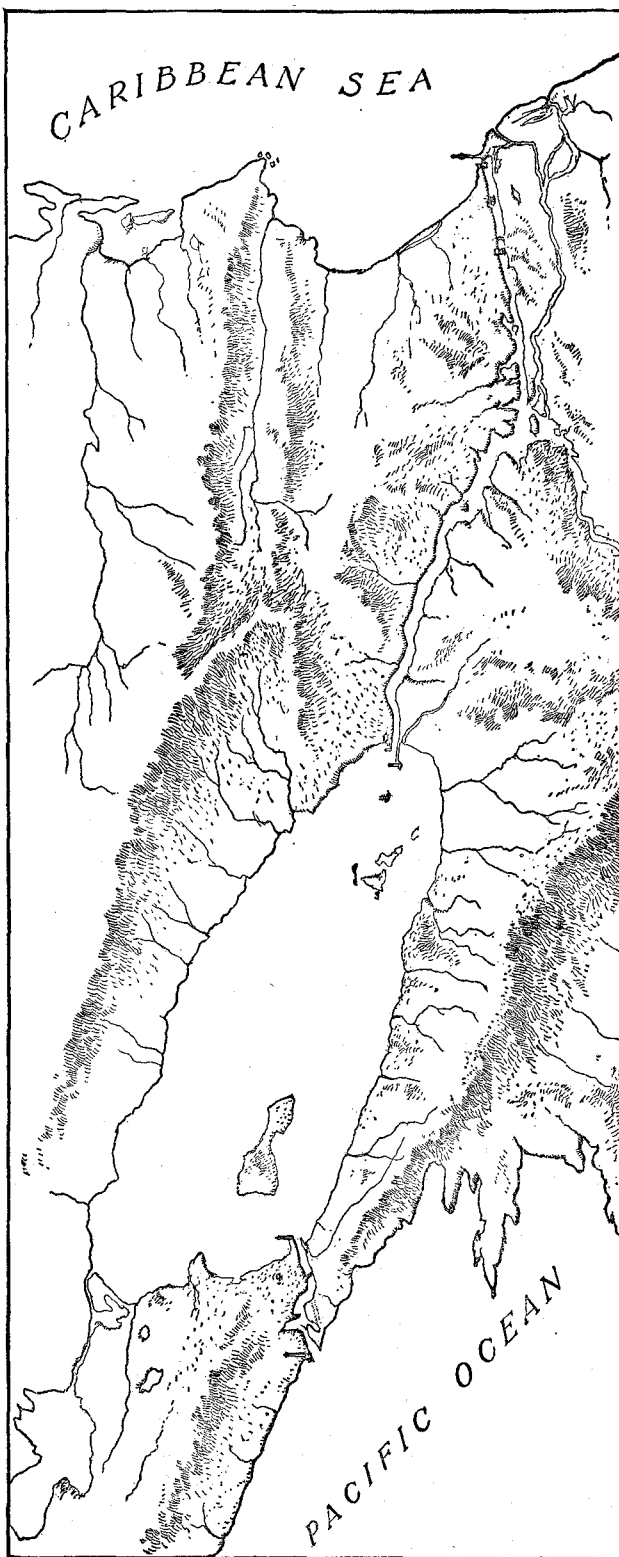
thereupon set out to promote the construction of such a canal by the United States, but his plans were defeated by the devotion of his agent to his own private concerns instead of the plan of the Administration. Then followed other ineffectual projects, most of which were supported by the French Government or French promoters. Louis Philippe projected a canal across the Isthmus of Panama, and Napoleon III., long before he came to the throne, was preparing his immediately famous monograph in favor of a canal across Nicaragua. This plan of Napoleon's youth he steadily adhered to when he ascended the throne, but it came to naught along with his project of a French empire in Mexico.

Meanwhile, however, our Nation had developed a commercial interest in the canal. The gold discoveries in California, just half a century ago, created at once an important American trade across the Isthmus. American capital soon obtained concessions for transit routes, and developed a highly profitable business both at Panama and through Nicaragua. In 1849 our Nation seemed on the point of obtaining from Nicaragua a concession giving it the exclusive right of constructing a transit way across this territory, if the United States would guarantee "to protect and defend the sovereign authority of Nicaragua." But Nicaragua was then at odds with Great Britain regarding the latter's protectorate over the Mosquito coast, and the new Whig administration preferred that the canal, if built, should be built by private capital, of which the English should furnish perhaps the major part. As England protested against our concluding the proposed treaty with Nicaragua, and President Taylor, with the opposition party in control of Congress, dared not risk an open conflict with England, he avoided a rupture by concluding the famous Clayton-Bulwer Treaty. By the terms of this treaty it was agreed that neither Great Britain nor the United States should ever obtain exclusive control over the canal nor build any fortifications along its route; and that neither country should ever take possession of any part of Central America, nor establish any colonies there, nor exert any dominion. This treaty was adopted by the Senate under the impression that Great Britain had receded from its previous territorial encroachments in Central America. When the correspondence of Secretary Clayton, published a few years later, made it clear

that Great Britain had relinquished next to nothing, there was a storm of protest, and the treaty might then have been abrogated on the ground of misunderstanding without any serious conflict between the two nations. President Buchanan set out to abrogate it, but a few concessions made by the English, through agreements with the Central American powers, led him to accept the treaty as satisfactory to America, and since then the compact has been one which cannot be broken on the ground of the misunderstanding under which it was ratified.

While diplomatic matters were in confusion, American promoters had none the less been pushing forward investigations as to the best route along which the proposed canal should be laid; and Colonel Childs, of Philadelphia, the chief engineer of the successful State canals across New York, went to Central America to reconnoiter. After an examination of the territory, Colonel Childs decided that the previously planned routes from Lake Nicaragua to the Pacific should be discarded, and that the cut should be made at Brito, where the hills rise only 154 feet above the Pacific, and only 46 feet above the level of Lake Nicaragua. Colonel Childs's plan, made half a century ago, has never been changed except in minor details.

The distinguished record of Colonel Childs does not, however, stand alone in making Americans proud of the work of our engineers in the various projects of



A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE NICARAGUA CANAL

isthmian transit. France has been our greatest competitor in these projects, but the French engineers' reports from the beginning have been more nearly the products of the imagination than those of serious investigation. The French engineers have not only been indefinitely less conscientious than our own, but have shown indennitely less engineering judgment. Some of the earlier "scientific" reports upon which the great capitalists and conservative statesmen of Paris became so enthusiastic read like very parodies of investigations. One of the most famous French engineers, De Puydt, desiring to learn the altitude of the range through which his company of capitalists wished to construct a canal, and not caring to brave the dangers of going over the route, calmly reached his conclusions by measuring the velocity of a stream at the base of the ridge. He thus figured their height to be less than one-fourth of what the later investigations of an American engineer proved it to be. The route which was thus laid out, however, was never in any degree developed; but the Panama Canal, upon which nearly three hundred millions were expended, was surveyed but little more accurately before the expenditures were begun. According to Professor Keasbey, of Bryn Mawr, whose admirable history of "The Nicaragua Canal and the Monroe Doctrine"¹ we have followed in this account, the French engineers had hardly done more than take "a walk over the Panama railway line." M. de Lesseps himself, it seems, had preferred to construct his canal through Nicaragua, but the inability of the French company to obtain the desired concession from Nicaragua, largely because of Nicaragua's preference for American co-operation, led the great French engineer to determine that the canal must be built at Panama. Having reached this determination, he carried it out by engineering of a kind not learned in the schools. Calling together a "scientific congress," composed largely of his personal friends, he used every means, short of brute force, to extort from it the verdict that the Panama Canal was the best adapted to meet the needs of commerce. Having with great difficulty obtained this verdict, he proclaimed that science had pronounced in his favor, and by the use of almost unlimited funds in subsidizing the press and securing the support of the statesmen and bankers of his own

capital, if not our own, he inaugurated the great scheme by which thousands of his countrymen were ruined. Ten years ago the financial liquidator of the company found that \$262,000,000 had been expended, of which sum about one-third had been spent legitimately, one-third had been squandered, and one-third practically stolen. The sum which had actually gone into the works should, according to De Lesseps's estimate, have finished the canal, but it accomplished barely one-third of the necessary work. By changing the original plan, however, from a sea-level canal through the ridge (284 feet high) to a canal with several locks, it is now estimated that another hundred million dollars will complete the work, and two thousand men, or thereabouts, are now engaged upon it.

This story of the Panama Canal, however, is apart from the main thread of American interests. Our country never invested any money in the Panama scheme, and seemed, indeed, politically hostile to it until M. de Lesseps's visit to this country was followed by the appointment of our Secretary of the Navy as an officer of the company at a salary of \$25,000 a year, and the payment of \$1,200,000 to three great New York banking houses for unknown work as "the financial agents" of the Panama Canal Company. American interests, from the first, have been almost entirely in the Nicaraguan plan, even when the success of the French plan was being claimed in the newspapers of Europe.

Soon after the close of our Civil War, the interest we had shown in Nicaragua at the time of the California gold discoveries revived. President Grant made the furthering of this canal project one of the prime objects of his Administration, and the Commission which he appointed made the first thorough investigation into the conditions under which the various proposed canals would have to be carried out. Had French investors but given attention to this Commission's report, their millions would have been saved. During the administrations of Presidents Hayes, Garfield, and Arthur, the same plans were kept in mind, and Secretaries Blaine and Frelinghuysen made a vain attempt to secure the abrogation of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty in order that this Nation might be free to act without regard to England's supposed interests. This attempt ended in failure. During President Arthur's term it seemed at one time probable that this Nation would, regardless of consequences, construct the canal

¹G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. (\$3.50.)

and establish a protectorate over Nicaragua, such as the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty seemed clearly to forbid. With the accession of President Cleveland, however, a change of policy ensued because of his opposition to America's assuming a protectorate over distant and alien peoples, and his extreme desire that private capitalists rather than the Government should carry forward the enterprise. During his administration the Maritime Canal Company was organized with a large capitalization, obtained a valuable franchise from Nicaragua, and actually expended something like \$6,000,000 in preparatory work upon the canal. This company made several efforts to get the United States Government to take over its enterprise by guaranteeing its securities, and in 1894 one of its attempts came near success. Its bill passed the Senate, but was rejected in the House of Representatives because \$22,500,000 of stock was allowed as compensation for the expenditures already made by the company. This proposed payment led to the fear that the support of the bill was largely the work of the lobby maintained by the company, though there was perhaps as much reason to believe that the opposition to the bill was the work of another lobby representing the Pacific Railroads. The failure of the bill, however, was in large measure due to the growing belief that the Government should itself construct and own the canal, and that partnerships between public and private corporations should henceforth be avoided.

During the past few years this belief has become the general public conviction. From all parts of the country has come the demand that the work shall be carried forward by and for the Government, and that this Nation, by owning the canal outright, shall obtain such rights of protection as private ownership gives in all parts of the world. This now seems to be the policy likely to be pursued. Whether or not we shall make further efforts to abrogate the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty is a question which need not now be settled. Those who believe in the essential unity of the purposes of Great Britain and this country, and desire that the waterway connecting the Atlantic and Pacific shall, like the Suez Canal, always be open to the trade of all the world by an international guarantee, will be inclined to favor the maintenance of the treaty. Those who are suspicious of England's designs to increase her territory and power, and who feel that these designs

are hostile to America, will be inclined to demand that the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty be abrogated, and that the United States shall alone control the waterway and the adjacent territory. This political question, however, may be left until the Nation decides the economic question whether the construction of the canal will be a profitable investment. In considering this primary question the salient points are as follows: If the Government constructs the canal, the estimated expense is \$133,000,000, and the income is a matter upon which only guesses can be made.¹ The canal will be of relatively little value to Europe, as it will not shorten the distance from Liverpool to any port of the Orient, or even in Australia. Europe will use the Nicaragua Canal only to reach the western coast of America. To ourselves, even, the canal will be of little commercial advantage in reaching a large part of the Orient, as Hong-Kong and the Philippines will be about as near through the Suez Canal as through Nicaragua. It will, however, place us many thousand miles nearer to Australia than we now are, and give New York an advantage over London of over one thousand miles in competing for the Australian trade. It will also, of course, place us about five thousand miles nearer than we now are to Peru and other countries on the west coast of South America. Its great advantage, however, will be in placing California within cheap communication of New York. The present freight-rate is from \$20 to \$30 per ton by rail, and from \$10 to \$12 by ships around South America. The time required for the ocean shipment would be reduced by nearly two-thirds, and a rate of \$5 a ton from San Francisco to New York would seem to be within reach. It is on this account that the Pacific slope has so vital an interest in this problem; and on this account, as well as on account of the naval consideration, that President Hayes declared that the Nicaragua Canal is "a part of the coast-line of the United States."

¹ Statisticians representing the claims of the transcontinental railroads have estimated the probable tonnage of the Nicaragua Canal Company as low as 300,000 tons a year, while those representing the Maritime Canal Company have estimated it as high as 9,900,000 tons a year—the latter estimate being thirty-three times the former. The important facts throwing light on the question are that the present tonnage of the Panama Railway Company is about 200,000 a year, while over 400,000 tons are shipped from our Atlantic ports to the Orient, and over 600,000 tons from our Pacific ports to Europe. With the Nicaragua Canal bringing our Atlantic ports somewhat nearer ports of Asia, and our Pacific ports much nearer all of Europe and our own Eastern and Southern States, a large increase of traffic would be inevitable.

The Drink Problem in New York City Politics

By George E. Waring, Jr.

AS I am going to recommend some things which a certain class of readers may think wrong, let me begin this paper with a very distinct statement of my own opinion. I am convinced that if the use of alcoholic beverages could be absolutely done away with, the community would be the better for it. All that the most zealous advocates of total abstinence say as to the effects of habitual drinking and of drunkenness is true. If it were possible to stop drinking by prohibition, I should be a Prohibitionist, and I should cease my own very moderate use of wine and spirits.

If anything has been proved by a third of a century of "Prohibition," it is that it does not prohibit. It prevents the regulation of the liquor traffic and the collection of public revenue; it does not prevent excessive and most demoralizing use of liquor, in secret and exultant violation of law. For all that, the temperance movement has done almost incalculable good, in that it has made drunkenness discreditable. There is now no class of society—no matter how low—which, as a class, does not look down on a drunkard. Before the advocates of temperance began their active work, fifty-odd years ago, the reverse was the case. There was then no class—no matter how high—which, as a class, condemned drinking as a vice and looked with reprobation on a respectable gentleman in his cups. Drinking was no more condemned than dueling was. So recently as when I was a well-grown boy, he was a bold man who would say that he would not accept a challenge; and I often saw a son of a respectable house in the village, acting as clerk in his father's store, sell rum at three cents a glass, with a jolly leer in his eye when he was getting his customer more than half seas over. He afterwards attained a very distinguished position, and such conduct would now seem to him worse than disgraceful.

There came to live among us in those days a handsome and cultivated gentleman whose habits were of the worst; he was rarely sober at noon, and he was habitually drunk at night. He was much respected, and when

he died he was sincerely regretted. The most striking impression he left on the community was connected with the fact that he had come to the village with a certain sum of money, saying that when he had drunk that up he should die. He literally drank himself to death, and left but sixpence of his fortune. While they were sorry for him and for his ways, the people thought him a wonderfully clever manager to have brought things out so evenly.

That less than sixty years should have brought about such a vast change in sentiment concerning drink is to the highest honor of those who have fought the evil with all their might, and who are still fighting it effectively. What they have accomplished is simply a radical reversal of popular sentiment. The ground they have gained has been made secure largely by the action of employers, who, as a very widely general rule, reject applicants who drink.

Temperance has struck its roots, and it will grow stronger as time goes on. Thank God for this. What now most interests those who care for good government in New York is the degree to which and the way in which the work of its advocates should be aided by law and by administration. It is to those who care for such government that this appeal is made.

Our population has come from all parts of the world, and, as Superintendent Byrnes once told me, "they have brought their mannerisms and their prejudisms with them." These immigrants are very rapidly becoming good Americans, but they and their children, like the rest of us, are much influenced by old customs, and have rather firmly fixed ideas as to personal rights. It is only a small proportion of any population that is willing to have its *habits* interfered with by law. We are proud of being "a liberty-loving people," and most of us think that liberty, like charity, begins at home; we care more for *personal* liberty, which touches our daily life, than we do for national liberty, whose touch is much less felt. It is not too much to say that—the actually criminal classes and the drunkards aside—

ours is a population of good citizens. Patriotic pride in the city is by no means confined to the rich and the well-to-do. It is quite as well established among "the other half." Standards vary. In one quarter of the town, and among a certain class, there is a respect for more laws than in another quarter and among another class; but there is no more respect for law in general. Laws protecting property and personal safety are universally respected. Laws which affect customs and which restrain personal indulgence have much more respect among those who are influenced by high social, moral, and religious standards than among those who are not so controlled, but who are very good citizens, all the same.

No fair view can be taken of the situation without bearing constantly in mind that this is a land of absolute religious freedom; that one has as much legal right to believe one thing as another, or to believe nothing. The Church may persuade a man; it cannot force him. The law can interfere only to protect the many against a violation of its peace by the conduct of the few. This is no more true as to religious questions than as to personal customs and habits. When religion, fashion, or prejudice undertakes to compel all persons to live according to its standards, it invades individual liberty, and invites, as it deserves, the condemnation and the resistance of those who claim the right to live otherwise.

Whatever effective action is to be taken to regulate the sale of alcoholic drinks must be taken with a constant regard to these considerations. We cannot enforce temperance, any more than we can enforce religion. As we may persuade a man to accept the tenets of Christianity, so we may persuade him to abstain from drinking to excess, or from drinking at all. At the same time, while we cannot prevent, we can regulate; and, from the nature of the case, we can apply regulation more easily and with far less irritation to the sale of drink than to its use.

As an itinerant preacher of strange doctrine can harangue a crowd in the street only under the control of the police, so the liquor-seller can dispense his beverages only under the same control. In the latter case, as in the former, the purpose is to protect the community from avoidable infringement of its rights. The preacher must not disturb the peace of the public nor violate its reasonable sense of propriety; and the saloon-keeper

must be subjected to the same restriction. In his case, because his influence is so all-pervading, and because his traffic is so much more pernicious in some of its effects, a stricter regulation is proper.

The great question is, How far is it wise to go in limiting the freedom of liquor-selling? If we had only to consider the effect of the traffic on those who support it, the answer would not be difficult, for whatever tends to suppress drunkenness must be very desirable. But there are other considerations. The need of good government is paramount to all other needs, and good government relates not only, nor chiefly, to sobriety; it includes in its purview everything that affects the good of all the people—which is only a shorter way of saying that there is no single interest of any man, woman, or child in the city which is not—often unconsciously—affected by its government. This is not the place to argue this proposition, if argument is needed. Surely all who give attention to the subject will at once admit its truth.

We must, then, make even the drink question subordinate to the larger question of securing the best possible administration of our public affairs. In order to get good government, we must secure the votes of many men who do not think as we do about many things. We must give as well as take; and if we are liberal in our giving, we can take a great deal. My official life in New York brought me, necessarily, into contact with all sorts of people, and I came to have a sincere regard for whole classes which are entirely unknown to those who move in other circles. There is a vast deal of honest manliness where those who live mainly among the more prosperous imagine that there is only a very low grade of humanity, actuated by a hatred of the rich and a suspicion of the better educated.

These people want what we want. They want good schools, clean streets, good magistrates, a well-ordered police, sufficient parks, a low death-rate, and good government generally. They do not want, nor do we, too much interference with personal habits and familiar customs. They, like ourselves, grow restive and unreasonable under espionage and unnecessary annoyance.

On the whole, it is not too much to say that we shall never have permanent good government in New York so long as our common people are annoyed as they have been by unnecessarily irritating Sunday restrictions

and too sharp interference with the saloons. When they can do openly what they are now forced to do by stealth—and what they certainly will do in one way or the other—they will have more respect for law, will lead more orderly lives, and will be less easily led to vote for the sort of government under which we are now suffering.

It is not easy to formulate a method of saloon regulation and of Sunday restriction which will satisfy all classes, but there is surely some middle ground on which all can meet with reasonable satisfaction, where the conditions will not be intolerable to any except the extremists of both sides; and laws are not made to satisfy extremists, but to make life agreeable to the great mass of the population. In my judgment, the influence of example, of persuasion, of self-interest, and of social improvement will be more effective when our laws cease to regard drinking as a *crime*. Take the mass of our German population, for instance. They have been accustomed for generations to the free—but generally not excessive—drinking of beer, and to the devotion of their Sunday afternoons to social intercourse in places of public resort where beer flows freely. The habit is practically universal with all classes, and not even the most religious element of the community thinks of condemning it. They come here and find their innocent national habits frowned upon, and themselves subjected to annoying and, as they think, absurd restrictions. They will vote for a pretty bad lot of public officers to escape from such tyranny, and they will listen with scorn to all talk of “Reform” which proposes to tolerate it.

Those who are addicted to strong drink, in like manner, consider it none of the law’s business to interfere forcibly with their personal habits and tastes; and a very large number of excellent citizens, whose habits and tastes are not at all the same, think with them and vote with them.

While a method cannot be easily formulated which would satisfy our country lawgivers and our city people at the same time, there are certain general principles which must be accepted before we get to a point where we shall be free from the present disastrous interference with our efforts for good government:

(1) The “Puritan Sabbath” can never be made acceptable to the people of New York.

(2) Beer is not to be classed with whisky as an objectionable beverage.

(3) Whisky is demanded by a very large number of persons who will connive at the violation of law to get it, if need be, every day in the week.

(4) Beer is regarded by many thousands of citizens as being as harmless, if not as necessary, as bread; and they will see the fiend incarnate in the Mayor’s chair rather than have their habit of taking it—on any day in the week—repressed by the police.

(5) There will be no objection to any reasonable tax on the sale of both beverages, nor to any *reasonable* regulation of the manner and the hours of their sale.

1. The first of these principles will be of slower and more difficult acceptance than all the others, for those who have been Americans for generations, like a very large majority of the people of this State, have had the sanctity of the Puritan Sabbath ground into their habit of thought to such a degree that—while most of them do not allow it to control their own habits—they think, as a matter of course, that they must treat it with great respect when it is presented to them as a fetish. Those zealous Christians who really believe that it is wicked to do pleasant things on Sunday are relatively very few; those who are ready to take up the Puritan Sunday as a political shibboleth are, as we have seen, numerous enough to make mischief for this city. Tammany, for example, asks no better ground for a campaign than the advocacy of Sunday rigidity by its opponents. It knows that thousands will vote with it because of this condition alone.

New York has not been for a generation a Puritan city, and it is growing away from Puritanism year by year. By a very large majority, it believes in making Sunday a day of innocent recreation—and it asks nothing that it does not believe to be innocent. Even the most rigid sabbatarian would realize, if he could persuade himself to wander on a pleasant Sunday afternoon through Central Park, the Art Museum and the Museum of Natural History, and to go up the Riverside Drive to Claremont, that the hundreds of thousands whom he would meet there were getting only benefit from their happy and healthy excursion away from the dull and often sordid surroundings of their workaday life. If, encouraged by this, he would visit a great German beer-garden, he would find men, women, and children engaged in a perfectly rational enjoyment to which their race has been accustomed at home. He would

see little, if anything, to which he could object—very much less than he would find at the same time in any frequented street of the city. If he could only be made to realize the degree to which his prejudices tend to favor the continuance of a government which he considers absolutely bad, he would see that his plan of making Sunday a day of open gloom and of secret evasion of law is the very worst plan to which he could give his support. One of the most useful efforts to which the reformer could apply himself would be to preach these truths to the rigid adherents of the austere Sunday.

2. No distinction is made in the remarkable Raines Law between whisky and other drinks which make men drunk, and light beer and wines, which at worst—and that rarely—make them dull. Nearly all the harm that grows from drinking is the work of the liquor-saloon. Waste of time and waste of money is the worst that can be seriously charged to the *Biergarten* or the *Bierhalle*, and the waste of time and money is not a proper subject for legislation. Lager-beer and the lighter sorts of wines contain a certain small percentage of alcohol—not enough to do such harm as the law need notice. Places where only these are sold should pay a certain moderate tax or license fee, because their business is a long-established source of public revenue, and because they should be securely registered for police supervision. Liquor-saloons, where beverages are sold having a higher percentage of alcohol, should pay a *very* much higher tax or fee—so much as to reduce their present number very greatly. The saloon, in its present development, is a curse to the people, and the greatest amount of restraint may properly be applied to it which will leave it possible for those who wish to buy its wares to do so without material inconvenience. Four saloons at the crossing of two streets are a shameful excess. The more the number of saloons can be restricted, the better they can be regulated.

3. Reprehend as we may the drinking of strong liquors, we must confine our contest with it to regulation and to moral suasion. We cannot prevent it by force. So long as men will drink, our best course is to lessen the glaring temptation to it which too frequent facilities afford, and to do what we can to make the practice orderly and decent. Those who sell and those who drink will offer no marked opposition to such a course,

Neither will they oppose very considerable Sunday restrictions, so long as these do not make it necessary to sell and to drink on the sly and in violation of law. Most of those who drink whisky would much prefer not to break a law in doing so; and they have a great disgust for a law which requires them to order a "meal" when they want a drink. They see no virtue in the stale old sandwich which is set out beside their glass to make their drinking legal. They are common-sense persons and they want common-sense treatment. If they cannot have it, they will vote wrong until it is given to them.

4. We can never get "the German vote," and the enormous sympathetic vote that goes with it, until we allow light beer and light wines to be sold as freely on Sunday—at least after the morning church hours—as on any other day in the week. And we shall never have the much-needed cordial vote and support of a large majority of the people for good government until we are ready to concede thus much to those who feel that they have a right to demand it. In my opinion, there is only one side to this question, save in the minds of those who adhere strictly, and most injuriously, to the sabbatarian limitations.

5. Conceding the foregoing, it will be easy to establish and to enforce any necessary regulations that good public order and decency may require, and to impose such a tax on the traffic in both liquor and the lighter drinks as will cover the whole cost of our school system, however large it may be. Our people have been so long accustomed to harassing exactions affecting their personal habits as to drink that they will willingly pay a very high price if they are allowed to do legally and at their own pleasure what they are now compelled to do under annoying restrictions.

If our best people, among the poor no less than among the rich, could be made to see the case as it is set forth here, and to act and vote accordingly, we should soon see the last of the present sort of Tammany government. Even Tammany itself would learn that its only chance for remaining in power would be to abandon its present corrupt ways and to satisfy itself with the honor of ruling the city wisely and honestly. It can hardly be doubted that it would govern in this way rather than not govern at all. There is no reason why wise and honest government should not be gladly accepted at the hands

of Tammany Hall. We are not fighting the name, but the present aim, of that organization. We can defeat this aim only when we

shall have given such treatment to the drink problem as common sense, and, in the city of New York, religion itself, demands.

“Cyrano de Bergerac:” A Brilliant Play¹

ALL Paris, and pretty much all France, have been talking for the last eight months about Edmond Rostand's play, “Cyrano de Bergerac,” which was first put upon the stage at Porte St. Martin on the 3d day of January, with the famous actor Coquelin in the chief rôle. It is a great many years since Paris has been so taken by storm as on that memorable night; even the critics were caught up in the current, and only one or two ventured to qualify in any respect the unbounded praise which was bestowed upon this new creation. The provinces caught the spirit of the capital, and the play has been making a triumphant progress through Europe. It has now reached New York, where it has found a very intellectual and subtle interpreter in Mr. Mansfield; and two translations have appeared. It is reported that more than a hundred thousand copies of the book have been sold; a success which carries one back to the days of Gautier, Dumas, and Victor Hugo. The author, M. Rostand, is still a young man; of distinguished appearance, distinctly French in face, dress, and carriage, who has already done promising work, but who now at a bound puts himself at the head of French dramatic writers of the day.

The central figure of his drama is, in a sense, historical. Bergerac was a gallant fighter, an incorrigible duelist; a brilliant wit, and a poet of no small skill. Philosophical romances, satirical poems, a comedy, and a tragedy bear his name. The dramatic fact in his career, however, was that, while able to impart to others the impulse of his genius, he also secured for others all those rewards which ought to have been his own. In every field he seems to have deserved success without winning it; as a soldier, as a poet, and as a lover, this was his fate; and the attractiveness and resourcefulness of the motive for dramatic action are evident in its very statement. Cyrano absolutely dominates the play

which bears his name. He is omnipresent; his genius is everywhere; his immense vitality and resourcefulness are in every scene; there is no limit to his courage, to his audacity, and to his capacity for sacrifice. He is a braggart, but he is also a born hater of the untrue, the servile, and the politic. He wins by independence of bearing. He is, however, handicapped by a nose which is grotesque in its proportions, and which plays no small part in the drama. M. Rostand has handled his materials with a brilliancy and point which carry one back to the best work of Dumas. Indeed, the play constantly recalls “The Three Musketeers” in its vivacity, its variety, and its audacity. In the first act, with marvelous skill, both the actors and the audience of a French theater of two hundred years ago are brought before the reader, in a series of light, slight, hurried, but marvelously vivid descriptive touches. Cyrano has fallen in love with his cousin, Roxane, a beautiful woman, who is a *précieuse*, with the foibles, subtleties, and artificialities of taste which characterize the *précieuse*. She makes an appointment with Cyrano, and raises his hopes to the seventh heaven, only to dash them by the confession of her love for one of his comrades, Christian—a youth of extremely comely appearance but of very ordinary mind. Cyrano therefore proposes that he shall furnish the poetry, the sentiment, and the conversation, and that Christian shall carry on the courtship; Cyrano being convinced that Roxane cannot be won save by brilliancy as well as by personal attractiveness. Christian plays this double rôle; he is the lay figure in the very amusing and dashing courtship which follows, but the sentiment and the poetry are furnished by Cyrano. There is a tragic touch at the end, when Christian dies, after making an ineffective attempt to reveal the truth to Roxane. She continues to worship his memory, while Cyrano, with the self-sacrifice which is his chief characteristic, carefully nourishes the illusion, and reveals himself only in the act of death.

The play is characteristically French;

¹ *Cyrano de Bergerac*. Translated by Gladys Thomas and Mary F. Guillemard. R. H. Russell, New York.
Cyrano de Bergerac. Translated by Gertrude Hall. The Doubleday & McClure Company, New York.

that is to say, every outline is distinct, the movement clear and swift, the play of wit almost incessant; everything has point, dash, and brilliancy. Through it all runs a vein of sentiment, with touches of poetry which are both genuine and captivating to the imagination. M. Rostand has succeeded in giving the utmost prominence to Cyrano's monstrous nose, and enduing him with the gift of comedy at every point, without destroying his dignity. "Cyrano de Bergerac," in its English dress at least, is free from objectionable passages; it is essentially a clean play. It is also essentially an untranslatable play. One must know French intimately to get all its wit and flavor; both must be lost in any translation, however skillful, and much of the form must also be sacrificed. One of the most characteristic bits in the play is the song of the *Cadets de Gascogne*; and one effect of the play has been to arouse the Gascons in Paris to irrepressible enthusiasm. As an outcome of this enthusiasm, the children of Provence in Paris, men and women—who have attained eminence as poets, musicians, painters, sing-

ers, actors, and writers—have been making a pilgrimage through Gascogne; a kind of sentimental journey from town to town, reciting verses, singing songs, wearing wreaths of flowers, attending endless banquets, and responding to innumerable toasts. At Agen, for instance, where the barber poet Jasmin was born, and where his statue stands, Benjamin Constant delivered an address, and Mounet Sully, the distinguished actor, the "Book-Buyer" tells us, acted a *résumé* of the poet's life. The excursion ended in a *fête champêtre* at the feudal château in which Calvé, the prima donna, spends her summers.

Whether "Cyrano de Bergerac" is to hold a permanent place as literature cannot be decided as yet; its brilliancy must affect any contemporary judgment. It is certain to have a great vogue, and the pathos of its conception and the lyric vein which runs through it ally it very closely to literature. In the present condition of the French stage the success of this poetic tragedy is a gain for taste and for art.

A Masque of Life

By Bolton Hall

THE moonlight streamed over my face so that I awoke, and in the clear, cool light I saw a great round hall, and in it the children of the Spirit worked and played. And on their faces, as on every face, was written what they were. Two were Birth and Joy, and two were Life and Love, and two were Sleep and Death. They wove garlands for each other. Birth they crowned with Strength, and Life with Holiness, and Death with Peace. So the children walked together, and every step was like a dancing-step. And Plenty spread a feast before them.

While I looked, other children came to them whose names were these: Stupidity and Selfishness. These took Death's crown of Peace and burned it in the fire, and bound his brows with Superstition; they made a mask for him out of a skull; they painted the face of Life with streaks of Care, and covered Birth with a robe of Misery.

When Love saw what it was they did, she opened a door upon which was written "Wisdom." Behind it was a long and painful stair called Knowledge; at the top the

stair was dark, but I could see Love's garland how it shone as she began to climb. She called to the others, "Come with me, children, come." None followed her but Joy; Sleep would have gone, but the others gave her poppies, and bright wine to drink, so that she stayed.

When Love was gone, the children played no more, but they invited Want and Pain to visit them, and they made knives for themselves of Cunning, and clubs of base Desires, and with these they fought until they could fight no more.

The children went to the other door on which was written "Happiness," and they knocked upon it with their clubs and cut at it with their knives; they pushed each other back; lest one should open it for himself; but the door was shut to all.

I lay watching them, it seemed to me for thousands of years, yet the forms of the children were still the forms of youth; but the eyes of Sleep were red, and she looked often and sadly round for Love, and Life stared gloomily at the ghastly mask of Death.

With each in turn walked Want and Pain.

These were old acquaintances of my own, so I looked closely at their faces, and though I hated them, I saw, in that clear light, that their eyes were kindly eyes. While I watched, they led the children to the door of Wisdom, and the children opened it, and some began to climb, and threw aside their hideous garb. Selfishness could not go, for he was lame and blind. Want and Pain tried to lead Stupidity, but Stupidity would not be led.

The children climbed, but as they went they looked to see who followed them, and when they saw who stayed behind, they turned to bring them up. And, behold! they saw that the door of Happiness was opened wide. The moonbeams filled the hall.

As I lay thinking what it meant to me, Selfishness and Stupidity vanished from my sight. Pain and Want went up the stair: the moonlight faded from the room.

I slept again.

Books and Authors

Mallock's Doctrine of the Great Man¹

For the ascertainment of truth a double process is necessary—construction and criticism. As the gun must first be made, then overloaded and fired to see if it will bear a greater strain than in the ordinary course should be put upon it, as the bridge must first be built and then tested by seeing if it will bear the weight to which in the ordinary course of traffic it may be subjected, so social, political, and religious theories must be submitted to a testing process in the laboratory before they are put into practice in life. The critical faculty is thus, in its way, as valuable as the constructive. In the main, however, we think that this critical process should be carried on separately, and not in connection with the construction of a competing structure. For this reason it may generally be left advantageously to journals and reviews. Our criticism on Mr. Mallock's volume is that it is neither one thing nor the other; it is too critical to be satisfactory as a piece of construction, and too constructive to be satisfactory as a piece of criticism. When a philosopher mingles criticism of a rival philosopher with a presentation of his own philosophy, the reader instinctively discredits the criticism; he doubts whether the rival philosopher is adequately, or even truly, represented, and he also doubts the new philosophy which is offered to him, because it is affected by the polemical spirit which usually characterizes the critic.

It is not quite easy to determine whether this volume of Mr. Mallock's is to be regarded

as critical, polemical, or philosophical: it is so compounded of all three elements. Thus to the evolutionist a certain discredit is thrown on the whole book by Mr. Mallock's definition of evolution as "the reasonable sequence of the unintended." Of course no evolutionist would accept this as a just definition, though he might admire it as a keen rhetorical criticism. So again the philosophic democrat, while quite ready to acknowledge that a narrow popular education has resulted in making too many clerks and bookkeepers, will think that Mr. Mallock totally fails to perceive that this particular defect of education is avoidable by a greater breadth and a larger recognition of the individual, and also quite ignores the effect of democracy in discovering great men who would otherwise be undiscovered, as American democracy discovered Abraham Lincoln.

The reader whose critical judgment is not impaired by his admiration for Mr. Mallock's easy and even seductive style will think that not infrequently his critical, not to say polemical, spirit obscures his vision. Such a reader will doubt the statement that man's wants are as stationary as those of the ox (p. 19); or that "the capacities of the average Englishman have remained altogether stationary" (p. 94); or that evolution negatives design (p. 97); or that the majority of those who declared for bimetallism in America had nothing to do with forming their own opinions (p. 186); or that the great man either produces or obtains all the "unearned increment" (p. 204); or that "in the domain of intellectual and speculative progress the many literally produce or achieve nothing" (p. 223). Indeed, Mr. Mallock seems to us, in places, to repudiate some of these very statements. His history

¹ *Aristocracy and Evolution: A Study of the Rights, the Origin, and the Social Functions of the Wealthier Classes.* By W. H. Mallock. The Macmillan Company, New York.

of the democratic growth of the Roman Catholic creed (pp. 227-9) affords a fine historic illustration of the truth that the great man is really servant of all, even in the highest realm—that of spiritual religion; that great men do not belong to a different race, but are in a true sense the exponents, because in a true sense the creatures, of their epoch; that they lead because they understand what the age really wants, and know how both to stimulate and to supply that want. In this sense Watt had a mandate to create a steam-engine quite as truly as Gladstone a mandate to frame a Home Rule bill for Ireland. Indeed, it may be questioned whether the mandate was not more imperative in the case of the steam-engine than in that of the Home Rule bill, even if it was not quite so clearly enunciated.

Despite these criticisms, illustrations of which might be multiplied, the book is a valuable contribution to social thought. It is so because, with a good measure of discrimination, it traces the middle path of truth between the philosophy of Herbert Spencer and that of Carlyle; between that which treats all history as the evolution of Man and that which treats it as the achievements of men; between that which attributes Luther to the Reformation and that which attributes the Reformation to Luther; between that which ignores the leaders of men and regards only the masses, and that which ignores, if it does not despise, the masses of men and regards only the heroes and the leaders. To sum all up, Social Democracy does not break down quite so absolutely under Mr. Mallock's testing as Mr. Mallock thinks it does; but probably the judicially-minded critic will agree that the theories of Social Democracy are proved by Mr. Mallock to be quite too doctrinaire to be true, and to require a very material modification in the direction of individualism, and by the recognition of exceptional leaders as essential to human progress—industrial, political, or religious. If Mr. Mallock has not proved all that he thinks he has proved, he has at least made it clear that the history of Man cannot be truthfully written if the history of men is omitted from the record.

Mr. Barrie has lately had this to say of Mrs. Oliphant's literary work: "I wonder if there is among the younger Scottish novelists of to-day any one so foolish as to believe that he has a right to a stool near Mrs. Oli-

phant, any one who has not experienced a sense of shame (and some rage at his heart) if he found that for the moment his little efforts were being taken more seriously than hers? I should like to lead the simple man by the ears down the long procession of her books."

Books of the Week

[The books mentioned under this head were received by The Outlook during the week ending September 30. Prices will be found under the head of Books Received in the preceding issue of The Outlook. This weekly report of current literature will be supplemented by fuller reviews of the more important works.]

HISTORY

The true history of any people is that which records with greatest faithfulness and fidelity their daily life as expressed in their industries, their politics, their social life and standards, and their religious beliefs. This has been done by Mrs. John King Van Rensselaer in *The Goede Vrouw of Manahata at Home and in Society*. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.) This history is in truth a history of the *goede vrouw* of the early years of the colony. To those who believe that this is the century in which women have been wielding the greatest influence, this history of the place accorded women in the days when the burgh of Manahata was making history will be a great surprise. Women held a far more intimate position in the politics of that day than to-day, and Mrs. Van Rensselaer would have us understand that this was due to their excellence above the women of all other countries in the housekeeping arts. This book is a gossipy, intimate record of the years between 1609 and 1760 of the peoples on Manhattan Island and Fort Orange, now the city of Albany. War, with its horrors, is kept well in the background. Politics, with its intrigues and heartburnings and defeated ambitions, is well subordinated to the family and social development of the Dutch colonies. Mrs. Van Rensselaer is Dutch in her sympathies, and fearlessly affirms the superiority of the Dutch over all other colonists in intelligence, foresight, thrift, and refinement. This book will bring those far-away days very near, and teach many lessons to the housewives of to-day.

After a hundred years literature has not yet exhausted the material that made up that stupendous tragedy that we call the French Revolution. The *dramatis personæ* of that event are still the objects of study. New information, new points of view, lead to new

presentations of the characters of the drama. The Norwegian author Clara Tschudi wrote a monograph, *Marie Antoinette*, which is notable for its unbiased judgment and its rapid and brilliant style. This style, and the general charm of the book, have been preserved by the translator, E. M. Cope. Clara Tschudi's narrative is minute and circumstantial, but it possesses the vividness of a romance. She admits the arrogance, the extravagance, and the imprudent friendships of the unfortunate daughter of Maria Theresa, but does not believe in the slanders that have assailed her in life and after death. Just before she went to the scaffold the attendant priest began to say to Marie Antoinette, "Your death will expiate—"; the Queen interrupted him, "Mistakes, but not crimes." Perhaps the economic historian will brand these mistakes as crimes, yet Marie Antoinette suffered for centuries of such crimes which preceded her. The monograph will be widely read. (The Macmillan Company, New York.)

ESSAYS

The series of short papers which have appeared from time to time in the New York "Evening Post" over the name of Eliot Gregory is now put into a substantial volume with the title *Worldly Ways and Byways*. It is dedicated to Mr. E. L. Godkin, and presents some very attractive qualities to the meditative reader. It is not, and does not pretend to be, an original work; it contains the observations and meditations of a saunterer—a man who has time to look at life and men and manners, and time also to write about them. Such a book cannot be read in haste, and its title will not commend it to those who do not understand the value of mental relaxation and of occasional contact with what may be called the social aspect of things; for the book grows out of social life. It has to do with men in their social relations; it notes their habits, the significance of their taste in dress, or their lack of it; their manners; the different habits of travel in different countries. It is the work of an observer of culture and insight, with excellent standards, and with a thorough sanity of temper. It is a book with an old-time flavor, and the publishers have wisely given it an old-time dress. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.)

Mr. Leon H. Vincent is a delightful lecturer upon literary topics. His forte is *bio-*

graphica literaria. A genuine lover of books, for books' sake he is capable of producing a charming volume, *The Bibliotaph and Other People*. Filled with literary gossips, quaint conceits, and felicitous phrasing, Mr. Vincent's book is one of those that we take up and read anywhere. At one moment your impression is clear that the prime quality of this book is its witiness; next you are struck with a certain easy omniscience of the author concerning first and second editions and bindings. How the devotees of D'Israeli the elder will rejoice in this his disciple! To turn over these pages is like visiting a county fair—every exhibit calls for a premium. The Bibliotaph bought books for the pleasure of buying them, then he stored them away, buried them in an inaccessible place, expecting to live to the day when he might collect them about himself. There is a picturesqueness about this form of bibliomaniac never before displayed. No doubt it has its own proper place among the final causes. In the meantime we chuckle over Mr. Vincent's description of the genial "crank." (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston.)

The Secret of Achievement, by Orison Swett Marden (Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York), is a collection of essays full of illustrative anecdotes told of and by men of prominence and achievement, to prove the necessity of cheerfulness, determination, industry, and clear-sightedness in order to live successfully.

ARCHÆOLOGY

It is futile enough, because entirely obvious, to declare that a final account of the history, life, and thought of the Babylonians cannot yet be written. That has not prevented Professor Morris Jastrow from giving a thorough and satisfactory account of the present knowledge of scholars and investigators of *The Religion of Ancient Babylonia and Assyria*. The work of Professor Jastrow forms the second number in the series of "Handbooks on the History of Religions," edited by Dr. Jastrow himself. The learned author inclines much to the opinion that the culture of ancient Babylonia was fundamentally Semitic. This indicates his position towards the Sumero-Accadian controversy. After giving his views upon the people and their language, Dr. Jastrow enters upon an exhaustive account of the gods of Babylonia, of the development of the Babylonian and Assyrian pantheons, of the liturgies and ceremonies, the

oracles and omens, the cosmology, the myths and legends, and the temples of the cult. From time to time he points out the relation between the Babylonian and the Jewish religious culture, and likewise some effects of Babylonian religious ideas upon New Testament writings and certain Gnostic systems. The Babylonians were distinctly a literary people, and their method of making brick books causes their culture to be represented with singular fullness to modern times. As for the nation itself, the Babylonians may be said to be extinct. Egypt, Greece, Rome, Persia, and Islam swept across Mesopotamia and wiped the Assyro-Babylonian people out of existence. Their records remained for centuries underneath the surface of the desert, carefully preserved for a day that could interpret their long-forgotten language. It is enough to say, in conclusion, that Dr. Jastrow has kept clearly before him the fact that he was preparing a handbook, and the result is admirably true to the title. It will prove most useful to any one who desires to have at command a compendium of the results of Assyro-Babylonian scholarship since the days of Grotefend and De Sacy to the present time. (Ginn & Co., Boston.)

The Vice-Provost of Eton College, Mr. F. Warre Cornish, has edited *A Concise Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities*, condensed and convenient in form, but containing nearly a thousand pages of text and over a thousand illustrations. The basis of the work is Sir William Smith's great work, but very large additions have been made, incorporating the results of modern learning and recent research. The work cannot fail to be of high value to the student and scholar. (Henry Holt & Co., New York.)

RELIGION

Rex Regum: A Painter's Study of the Likeness of Christ to the Time of the Apostles, by Sir Wyke Bayliss, undertakes to deduce a true likeness of Christ from very early and confessedly crude portraits. "By the likeness of Christ," says the author, "I do not mean the likeness of any one of them in particular, but the very similitude of them all, which was not invented by the great masters, but was adapted by them from earlier records." This likeness, he insists, has received the sanction of the Church in the mosaics of the basilicas for more than a thousand years before the period of the Renais-

sance, existed not only in the time of Constantine, but in the catacombs during the first three centuries, not as a solitary example, but in countless numbers; not as one among many, but the only representation of Christ that claims to be authentic or has the characteristics of true portraiture. We shall not undertake here to pass judgment upon the historical value of this likeness. There is a certain common character about all, or nearly all, the early portraits. Whether this common characteristic indicates that they conform to the original, or only indicates the imitativeness of the early artists, who unconsciously adopted a common type, is a question on which there may well be difference of judgment. We are inclined to think the latter the more probable opinion. (The Macmillan Company, New York.)

St. Paul: An Autobiography. This is a little booklet of fifty pages giving the life of Paul in his own language. It will probably surprise most readers to learn how much of spiritual autobiography there is in the letters of Paul. In the main the selections have been well made and are well dovetailed together. (The Revell Company, New York.)

The Christian Teaching, by L. N. Tolstoï, does not seem to us of equal value with some of his previous writing. We do not find in it that perfectly clear and incontestable solution of the mysterious problem of life which Count Tolstoï thinks it furnishes. It is suggestive in places, but is excessively analytical. It abounds in definitions, but its definitions do not always define. (Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York.)

TRAVEL

The Rev. James S. Gale, the author of *Korean Sketches*, has been for years a missionary of the American Presbyterian Church in Korea. He writes easily and picturesquely of the people and their customs; of humorous incidents of Korean life; of exciting and amusing travel adventures; and of the possibilities of manufactures, commerce, agriculture, education, and religion in Korea. His book is absolutely free from the suspicion of cant or professionalism, and is thoroughly readable. As a clear presentation of native life it is the best extant book on Korea. (The F. H. Revell Company, New York.)

An American Cruiser in the East, by John D. Ford, Fleet Engineer of the Pacific Station, U.S.N., is a very entertaining volume

of travels and studies in eastern Siberia, Japan, Korea, China, Formosa, Hong-Kong, and the Philippine Islands. The book contains not only lively sketches of manners, places, and institutions, but political and geographical information. There are three maps and a hundred and fifty photographic illustrations. (A. S. Barnes & Co., New York.)

NOVELS AND TALES

Mr. George Gissing's special province in fiction has been the realistic depiction of middle-class life in London. He has been accused of pessimism, cynicism, and, what is worse, of dullness; but of his faithfulness as a portrayal of actual types and individuals there has never been any question. In *The Town Traveler* Mr. Gissing rather wanders into the province of Mr. Moore in describing distinctly low-class London life, and the change has inspired in him a liveliness of treatment and a joviality which are quite missing in his longer and more ambitious books. The story is an odd one and has odd characters. (The F. A. Stokes Company, New York.)

Grace O'Malley, in Robert Machray's romance of that name, is an Irish "princess and pirate" of the time of James I. of England. Her wild adventures on sea and land in seeking vengeance on the English slayers of her father make up the substance of a fairly good but not notable novel of action. (The F. A. Stokes Company, New York.)

POETRY

Mr. Paul Elmer More, of the Harvard Faculty, has made a collection, chiefly from the Sanscrit of Bhartrihari, of brief gnomic or aphoristic Hindu verse, to which he has given the title *A Century of Indian Epigrams*. The selections appear to be thoroughly representative; they bring out with great clearness the Hindus' feeling for woman, their conception of self-effacement, and their estimation of human passions and ambitions. The Hindus have never been historians, and there is very little to be said definitely about Bhartrihari. According to Mr. More, he was a prince who was suddenly aroused from the voluptuous life of the palace by an intrigue which prompted him to abdicate the throne and to withdraw to the woods, where he passed the remainder of his life in a cavern, one of the great company of Hindu recluses or hermits. A little book of epigrams exists under his name, in which he unfolds in a certain fragmentary way the experience of

his life, devoting one hundred stanzas to the love of women and their baneful influence, conceived in the true Oriental fashion; a second group of verses is devoted to the exposition of prudential ethics, and a third to an expression of what may be called the ideals of Hindu philosophy. There is no novelty in the poet's thoughts about these matters, but there is often great felicity of expression, and, for those who are interested in Oriental thought, as most intelligent people are in these days, and some very unintelligent ones as well, this book will have a positive value, both for its own poetic quality and for the beauty of thought which lies behind it. The volume is very attractively made. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston.)

Messrs. George Bell & Sons (London) have put their imprint on a very dainty and beautifully printed edition of Mrs. Browning's *Sonnets from the Portuguese*; a small quarto with wide margins, decorated initials, and a sonnet to a page. (The Macmillan Company, New York.)

BOOKS FOR YOUNG PEOPLE

A charming collection of fairy stories has been written and illustrated by Katharine Pyle (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York), entitled *The Counterpane Fairy*. The leading characters are a small boy who is ill, and a delightful fairy, who, as all true fairies should, appears at just the right time. Rarely do the children of the present day have written for them a book that is so exquisite in conception and admirable in execution.

Mrs. Mabel Osgood Wright combines in an unusual degree minute knowledge of natural life and the power of conveying that knowledge in a very interesting fashion. Her little book, "Tommy-Anne and the Three Hearts," has not been forgotten by the younger or older readers into whose hands it fell; and her latest book, *Four-footed Americans and Their Kin*, will find the same favor which greeted its predecessor. It is constructed on the same lines; it aims to give instruction, but to do it without dogmatism or visible pedagogic means. In the form of a story, the scene of which is the Orchard Farm and the characters in which are a naturalist, his daughter, a country boy, a farmer, a charcoal-burner, various other persons, and, last but not least, two dogs, Mrs. Wright recounts the life of the family from autumn until spring; a life which was spent largely out-of-doors, and which was occupied chiefly

in making the acquaintance of four-footed Americans. These four-footed Americans include all the animals with which children in this part of the world are thrown in contact; and the charm of the book lies in the fact that on the farm acquaintance with the habits, characteristics, and families of these various animals is made through a perfectly natural association with them. The difference between the knowledge of the boy who makes the acquaintance of animals on a farm and the knowledge which the man acquires later as the result of deliberate study is of a very radical kind. In this book the acquaintance comes about in the most natural way, and deepens into intimacy by mere facility of association. The volume is thoroughly illustrated, as it ought to be, by Mr. Ernest Seaton Thompson, and the illustrative work deserves special attention, so accurate and spirited is it and so well done in point of workmanship. The volume has also had the benefit of the editorial supervision of Mr. Frank M. Chapman. (The Macmillan Company, New York.)

Sea-fighting and Indian-fighting are perennial topics of interest for the boy reader. Of late, perhaps on account of the war with Spain, sea tales have been in the ascendant. A capital story of this kind is Mr. James Otis's *The Charming Sally*, which also gives graphic pictures of New York's excitement and revolt after the passage of the Stamp Act. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston.)—For lovers of Indian tales Colonel H. R. Gordon's *Tecumseh* provides a plain and simple tale of the great chieftain and Simon Kenton. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York.)

Christy, the King's Servant, by Mrs. O. F. Walton (Fleming H. Revell Company, New York), is a short religious story of the influence exerted by the simple fisher folk on a young artist from London. The unwritten text is, "A little child shall lead them." The same house publishes the story of *A Puzzling Pair*, by Amy Le Feuvre, illustrated by Eveline Lance in marginal drawings, some of which are full of life and movement. The misquoting of Scripture and distorted ideas of Christ and heaven, conceived and expressed to two otherwise charming children, are serious blemishes to a book intended for little children.

NEW EDITIONS

Mrs. Slosson's *Fishin' Jimmy* is one of those stories which in the nature of things

must not only be popular, but must also be illustrated, and the illustrated edition has now appeared; Miss Alice Barber Stephens having attempted, with considerable success, the difficult task of realizing to the eye this affecting and pathetic story. The photo-gravures are well conceived and effectively printed, and the head and tail pieces are specially good. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.)

If any justification were needed for the publication of a new edition of Charles Dickens's *Child's History of England*, it is to be found in the presence of a series of illustrations taken by Mr. Clifton Johnson with his camera, which bring before the reader the historical sites and buildings mentioned in the narrative. Mr. Johnson has a keen eye both for the historical and the picturesque, and the readers of *The Outlook* are quite familiar with the value of his work as an illustrative photographer. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston.)

MISCELLANEOUS

The girl who is puzzled as to what is necessary in order to be "a social success" in good society should read *The Well-Bred Girl in Society*, by Mrs. Burton Harrison. (Doubleday & McClure Company, New York.) The intention of this book is to point out the difference between the girl who, by every action in society, shows that she is accustomed to the best that society has to give, and the girl who makes the blunder of believing that to attract attention in public by dress, manner, and violation of recognized laws is the evidence of social success. Mothers will find in this book suggestions which are needed, if the behavior of many girls who belong in homes of refinement affords a ground of opinion. Mrs. Harrison has done a service to the society of a country that creates wealth faster than it secures culture.

An extremely thorough and almost exhaustive treatise on *Cotton* has been prepared by Mr. C. P. Brooks, the Director of the American Correspondence School of Textiles. While this work is largely technical, it cannot fail to be useful and interesting to every one who has to do with the sale, manufacture, or marketing of this great staple. The book is profusely and well illustrated with half-tone pictures, and every process connected with cotton-planting, growing, picking, ginning, pressing, and selling is treated

fully and clearly. (Spon & Chamberlain, New York.)

Literary Notes

—Mr. Hall Caine's next novel, it is stated, is to be called "The Drunkard," and it is rumored that it is to be published in shilling parts.

—Mr. H. G. Wells, who has been somewhat seriously ill, is mending, and is talking of early finishing the novel on which he was engaged when he was overtaken by his illness.

—The "Sacred Congregation" at Rome has placed in the Index Expurgatorius a book entitled "Monks and Their Decline," written by Father G. Zurcher, of St. Joseph's Church, Buffalo, N. Y.

—George Augustus Sala, says London "Figaro," was never appraised by the public at half his value. His most precious endowment was his alert and spontaneous humor. The organization of the Bentley firm reminds me of one instance of this. George Bentley appointed Sala the first editor of "Temple Bar," and the new editor selected as a motto for the title-page the sentence, "'Sir,' said Dr. Johnson, 'let us take a walk down Fleet Street.'" To this day most people believe this to be a quotation from Boswell. As such it has taken its place in English literature. As a matter of fact, it was an emanation from Sala's own brain—a true and delightful bit of travesty—pure essence of Boswell, extracted by a genuine humorist.

Books Received

For the week ending October 7

- A. S. BARNES & CO., NEW YORK
Ruth and Her Grandfather. By Todd. Drawings by E. B. Edwards. \$1.
- THE CENTURY CO., NEW YORK
Brooks, Noah. The Story of Marco Polo. \$1.50.
Long, John L. Madame Butterfly. \$1.25.
Mitchell, S. Weir. Adventures of Francois.
Morton, Agnes H. Our Conversational Circle. \$1.25.
Stockton, Frank R. The Casting Away of Mrs. Lecks and Mrs. Aleshine. \$1.50.
Cloud, Virginia Woodward. Down Durley Lane. \$1.50.
Hughes, Rupert. The Lackerim Athletic Club. \$1.50.
Parloa, Maria. Home Economics. \$1.50.
Dickens, Charles. The Cricket on the Hearth. \$1.
Franklin, Benjamin. Poor Richard's Almanack. \$1.
- THOMAS Y. CROWELL & CO., NEW YORK
Bolton, Sarah Knowles. A Country Idyl and Other Stories. \$1.25.
Robinson, Harriet H. Loom and Spindle. \$1.25.
Pearse, Mark G. The Gentleness of Jesus. 75 cts.
Morrison, Sarah E. Chilhowee Boys in Harness. \$1.25.
Miller, J. R., D.D. The Joy of Service. 75 cts.
Dole, Charles F. Luxury and Sacrifice. 35 cts.
Thwing, Charles F., D.D. The Best Life. 35 cts.
Hudson, W. H. The Study of English Literature. 35 cts.
Genung, J. F. What a Carpenter Did with His Bible. 35 cts.
Perkins, Mary H. (Dorcas Hicks). Through My Spectacles. 75 cts.
- DODD, MEAD & CO., NEW YORK
Dunbar, Paul Laurence. The Uncalled. \$1.25.
Moore, F. Frankfort. The Fatal Gift. \$1.50.
Steuart, John A. The Minister of State. \$1.50.
Payson, William F. The Title-Monger. \$1.25.
Capes, Bernard. Adventures of the Comte de la Murette.
Jerome, Jerome K. Second Thoughts of an Idle Fellow.
- DOUBLEDAY & MCCLURE CO., NEW YORK
Kipling, Rudyard. The Day's Work. \$1.50.
Garland, Hamlin. Ulysses S. Grant, His Life and Character. \$2.50.
Macaulay, Lord. Dr. Samuel Johnson and Other Essays. (Little Masterpieces.) Edited by Bliss Perry. 30 cts.
Ruskin, John. Venice and Other Essays. (Little Masterpieces.) Edited by Bliss Perry. 30 cts.
Carlyle, Thomas. Biographical Essays. (Little Masterpieces.) Edited by Bliss Perry. 30 cts.
Hocking, Joseph. Mistress Nancy Molesworth. \$1.
- EATON & MAINS, NEW YORK
Illustrative Notes on International Sunday-School Lessons (1899). \$1.25.
Terry, Milton S., D.D. Biblical Apocalypitics. \$3.
Bancus, Georgiana. Outline of the Moral Teachings of the Bible. 20 cts.
Newell, Wilbur C. The Truth About Hell. 20 cts.
- ELDER & SHEPARD, SAN FRANCISCO
Ilsley, Marshall. By the Western Sea. \$1.50.
- GINN & CO., BOSTON
Buell, Colin S. Essentials of Psychology. \$1.10.
- HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO., BOSTON
The Starlight Calendar. Compiled by Kate Sanborn. \$1.25.
Tomlinson, Everett T. The Boys of Old Monmouth. \$1.50.
Hall, Ruth. In the Brave Days of Old. \$1.50.
Stanwood, Edward. A History of the Presidency. \$2.50.
- Chamberlain, Mellen. John Adams. \$2.
Tennyson, Alfred Lord. Poetic and Dramatic Works. (Cambridge Edition.) \$2.
- JOHN LANE: THE BODLEY HEAD, NEW YORK
Atherton, Gertrude. The Californians. \$1.50.
- LEE & SHEPARD, BOSTON
King, Charles F. Roundabout Rambles in Northern Europe. \$1.25.
Parker, W. Gordon. Six Young Hunters. \$1.25.
- LITTLE, BROWN & CO., BOSTON
Baldwin, Simeon E. Modern Political Institutions.
- THE MACMILLAN CO., NEW YORK
Saintsbury, George. A Short History of English Literature. \$1.50.
Pike, Granville R. The Divine Drama. \$1.50.
Wilson, L. L. W. History Reader for Elementary Schools. 60 cts.
- THE PILGRIM PRESS, CHICAGO
Barton, William E. The Story of a Pumpkin Pie. Illustrated by A. M. Willard.
Rich, Alice H. Lois and Her Children. \$1.
Crosby, E. Theodora. With South Sea Folk. \$1.
- G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS, NEW YORK
Wiel, Alethea. The Romance of the House of Savoy (1003-1519). 2 Vols. \$4.
Tracy, Louis. The Lost Provinces. \$1.50.
Robinson, James H. Petrarch. \$2.
Irving, Washington. The Adventures of Captain Bonneville, U.S.A. (Pawnee Edition.) 2 Vols. \$6.
Fuller, Anna. One of the Pilgrims. \$1.25.
Sears, Lorenzo. Principles and Methods of Literary Criticism. \$1.25.
Putnam's Gem Dictionary. 75 cts.
Schurman, Jacob G. A Generation of Cornell (1868-1898).
- Heron-Allen, Ed. A Manual of Cheirosophy. \$1.75.
- FLEMING H. REVELL CO., NEW YORK
Hartman, Rev. L. B., D.D. Divine Penology. \$1.25.
McClure, James G. K., D.D. The Man Who Wanted to Help. 25 cts.
Cuyler, Theodore L., D.D. Mountain Tops with Jesus. 25 cts.
- FREDERICK A. STOKES CO., NEW YORK
Beecher, Henry Ward. Autobiographical Reminiscences. Edited by T. J. Ellinwood. 75 cts.
- THE UNION PRESS, PHILADELPHIA
Wood, Rev. Charles, D.D. Friends and Foes of Youth.
- UNIVERSITY PUBLISHING CO., NEW YORK
Browne, W. H. The Clarendon Dictionary.
- THE WERNER CO., NEW YORK
Butterworth, Hezekiah. The Story of America.
- THOMAS WHITTAKER, NEW YORK
Yonge, Charlotte M. The Patriots of Palestine. \$1.25.
- W. A. WILDE & CO., BOSTON
Norton, Charles Ledyard. A Soldier of the Legion. \$1.50.
Butterworth, Hezekiah. Lost in Nicaragua. \$1.50.

The Religious World

The Meeting of the American Board of Foreign Missions

Our recent Minister to China, Mr. Denby, to whom a distinguished Englishman was alleging the uselessness of missionary work in China, replied: "You can know nothing about it till you have seen it." Mr. Denby made a tour of inspection himself, and testified that the missionaries had undertaken to civilize 400,000,000 people, and were doing the work well. Perhaps some readers of *The Outlook* need to look into the facts in order to appreciate them justly.

At present, when the main theater of the world's interest has been transferred by recent events from the West to the East, and American industry and commerce keenly feel what they have at stake in the development now dawning in China, there is special claim for attention to a report on "The Missionary Outlook in China," presented last week, at Grand Rapids, Mich., to the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, in behalf of their deputation recently returned from an examination of the fields. Stagnant China has at length been stirred, deeply stirred. The recent reaction of the conservative party against the reforming edicts of the Emperor attests the fact. A new spirit is spreading. In 1877 there were but 13,000 Protestant communicants. In 1890 the number had trebled. But that gain was slight in comparison with the prodigious advance since made. The number of "inquirers" in the one mission at Foo-chow exceeds 12,000. The native contributions at Foo-chow average over four dollars in gold for each church member yearly, equal at least to \$50 here. Foo-chow College, with 190 students, nearly all of them members of the Christian Endeavor Society, is the center of a wide evangelistic work. Converted Chinese returning from California are efficient helpers. The embarrassment now is to provide teachers and preachers for the thronging multitudes. Of the more than one hundred thousand patients treated every year by the medical missionaries, and made acquainted with a benign faith, many become disseminators of that faith in regions still unreached by its preachers. In this daybreak of better hopes something more is demanded of America than mere mercantilism bent on

making profits from China. As her nearest neighbor, America must respond to her call for light and leading in this day of her awakening from the sleep of ages.

Two years ago the center of interest was in Turkey and its mission fields devastated by massacre. Here the work is rising out of ruin; the schools are crowded again; 3,000 orphans are cared for; Euphrates College at Harpoot, destroyed by the Turks in 1896, is conducting its work in hired houses with 900 pupils. The Turkish Government has greatly changed its attitude to our missionaries. A semi-official statement exonerates them from the false charges of complicity with revolutionists. The Board is quite satisfied with the action of our Government on its claim of indemnity, and believes that the claim will be collected and guarantees given for the future.

As by the sword in Turkey, so by the plague in India has the field been ravaged. What our missionaries have done for the relief work has been publicly acknowledged by the local representatives of the British Government. And yet, amid the distress, the Marathi Mission has received more than three and a half times as many accessions to the Church as in any year of its history. But from India, Turkey, China, and other fields come urgent calls for reinforcement. "We are undermanned and overworked up to the breaking strain." The report of the Home Department says: "The situation is not entirely a happy one." With a growing work there seems to be a declining force—forty-one less than in 1894. Fifteen have been sent out this year, but at least a dozen more were held back for lack of funds. The receipts of the treasury, \$661,307, have been \$40,000 less than the average for the past five years. A debt of \$40,000 is reported this year. This notwithstanding the cut of ten per cent. in missionary salaries in all the fields but two, and a reduction of the native agencies by nearly one-half—a cut not merely to but into the quick. It is most probable that the extra drain this year upon the pockets of the people for the relief of soldiers for whom the Government failed to provide is in part responsible for the shortage. But it is a most discreditable fact that 2,281, or about two-fifths, of the Congregational churches contributed

nothing during the year to their own work in the foreign field. The responsibility for this neglect lies in large part at the door of their pastors. Wherever there is a pastor duly alive to his responsibility in this matter, his church, however poor, generally gives something.

The meeting, the lights and shadows of whose yearly review have here been scantily shown, was the eighty-ninth of the venerable Board, the pioneer of all the American societies now in the field. On its 101 stations, as on the fortresses of the British Empire, the sun never sets. Its educational work, however stunted by deficient supplies, is particularly promising, with 56,625 pupils in various grades, besides 59,701 in Sunday-schools. Its 465 organized churches, averaging a hundred members each, have added to their membership during the year over ten per cent.—at least double the rate reported in the Congregational churches at home. The common error of regarding these mission churches as mere recipients of our benevolence is shown by the fact that they have themselves paid during the year for the support of their Christian institutions the sum of \$118,753. The givers of this sum are but one-tenth as many as the Congregational church members of this country, while the sum itself, comparing the rate of wages here and there, is equivalent to more than \$1,000,000 given here.

Special interest awaited the report of the committee appointed a year ago upon the notable paper then read by the Hon. J. M. W. Hall, of Cambridge, upon the financial and other problems of the Board. This committee, so far from agreeing with those who have feared that the educational work was overproportioned to the evangelistic, urged the importance of strengthening it, especially in the higher schools. The benefits, both direct and reflex, of the recent deputation sent to China brought forth a recommendation to send others elsewhere. As to the apprehended financial crisis, it would seem that the tide has turned. The old system of appeals for contributions has been bettered by the beginning of carefully organized methods to secure them through local co-operating committees. These, already fruitful, are to be extended, and the sum requisite for the support of a special agent was pledged at once. The lack of adequate organization seems to us the real cause of financial deficits, not a change of theological views, as inti-

mated by one speaker. Churches known as leading in the theological advance have not been lagging in the support of missions.

Space fails us for interesting details—such as the opening sermon from Luke iv., 18, in which Dr. Meredith was at his best; Secretary Daniels's paper on "Young Manhood and Womanhood in Missions," reverberant with the hopefulness of the Student Volunteer Movement; the impressive addresses, among many others, by President Eaton, of Beloit College, one of the deputation to China, and Dr. Lamson, of Hartford, whose year in the presidency of the Board has fully justified the expectations entertained of the successor of Storrs and Hopkins. Last year's officers were re-elected, and a woman, for the first time in the history of the Board, was chosen as one of its corporate members—Margaret J. Evans, for many years the head of the woman's department of Carlton College, Minnesota. Harmony, hopefulness, and earnest enthusiasm characterized the three days' meeting. Next year the Board is to meet in Providence.

General Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church

Washington, the youngest of the dioceses of the Church in this great country, has a history of scarce three years, yet she is to-day receiving and entertaining the thousand attendants upon the Convention, the great central legislative body of the Episcopal Church, with a hospitality never excelled in the long history of these triennial gatherings. The bishops, clergy, and laity of the Church who come here to represent in her councils the several dioceses find the new diocese duly organized, with a bishop—Dr. Satterlee, the former rector of Calvary Church, New York—many churches belonging formerly in the Diocese of Maryland, and an endowment of \$100,000, a bishop's residence, and land on which the new cathedral will be placed. The diocese has about twenty-five thousand communicants.

The great opening service in the Church of the Epiphany was on Thursday morning of last week, and was attended by about seventy bishops and nearly all of the six hundred clerical and lay delegate missionary officials. In his sermon Bishop Tuttle spoke strongly on conservatism and progress, the two forces which, by safeguarding and out-reaching, enable the holders of the truth to anchor "the goodly ship of this Church in the

clear current of historic authority and chartered grace," while standing for breadth and progress, expansion and true liberty of thought and action. No need, in the thought of the speaker, for conservatism to be timid or to tremble at the lengthening of the cords loosened by love and stretched free and far in the wealth and warmth of brotherly kindness, in a Church where the creeds and the sacraments, liturgy, the Holy Scriptures, and the strongholds of authority are so firmly guarded. The Church is ready for progress, for science, for beneficence, for brotherhood; and, if a feeble folk in number, is helpful in the twofold work of giving to the world the sweets of liberty and the restraints of order under the direction of God's law, God's truth, and God's guidance.

As the Convention organized for business in its two houses, it became evident in this governmental city how closely the Episcopal Church was allied in its beginnings with the organization of the United States Government. Its Houses of Bishops and of Clerical and Lay Deputies have separate settings, and represent the dioceses as the houses of Senate and Representatives represent the States, each of the fifty-eight dioceses sending to the Convention four clerical and four lay deputies; the missionary jurisdictions, of which there are over twenty-five, being represented by delegates who may speak but not vote. The sessions of the House of Bishops are behind closed doors, and at the opening session in the House of Deputies it was decided to hold the discussions of that body also in reserve while discussing the new canon on marriage and divorce, which is one of the most important matters to come before the Convention. Conclusions only will be announced. The new canon, prepared by a joint committee of both houses, forbids the clergy of this Church to solemnize the remarriage of either party to a divorce for any cause whatever, whether the person seeking remarriage be innocent or guilty. The present canon allows remarriage of an innocent party in a suit for one cause only. A strong party in the Church opposes the new canon. While upholding the high standard which the Episcopal Church has taken, and in the large maintained, regarding the inviolability of marriage and the sanctity of home, these members of the bishops and clergy maintain that the interpretation of the words of Christ concerning the inviolability of the marriage vow under any circumstances is no suffi-

ciently uniform to warrant the enforcement of a new law on the subject which would contravene the legislation of Catholic churches and the usage of centuries of Catholic experience.

The party in favor of the stricter canon argues that the youngest branch of the Anglican communion may well, in a new country, take the lead in elevating the moral standards of the community. They urge the words of Gladstone strong in plea for the absolute inviolability of the marriage vow, and the recent remarkable declaration of Queen Victoria, as head of both Church and State, which seeks to forbid the clergy to solemnize remarriage after divorce on any grounds, as support from the English Church. From the Episcopal clergy in this country comes a document, signed by nearly sixteen hundred (about one-third) of the clergy of the Church, who favor the adoption of the stricter canon. The paper is prepared unofficially for circulation among the deputies, and contains the names, addresses, and signatures of many of the most prominent clergymen in the land. Many minor but related questions, such as those regarding penalties to those who remarry after divorce, will be discussed. The change of the name of the Church will again be broached, and among other interesting questions to be discussed are the addition of missionary dioceses, notably those of Hawaii and Brazil, and the creation of a provincial system which shall allow dioceses allied by interests and vicinage to manage details of administration, leaving only matters of larger interest to come before the General Convention. Christian unity may again be a subject for discussion, and if it comes up will test the progress made by the deputies toward liberal thought in the direction of Church union.

Missions so far have occupied the chief attention of visitors to the Convention. On Friday the Convention adjourned in its several branches to meet as a Board of Missions and set apart Tuesday morning to note the twenty-fifth anniversary of the consecration of Bishop Hare as Missionary Bishop to the Indians. The sense of responsibility to the peoples of the Eastern and Western islands has been deepened by the recent National events, and, in common with the other religious bodies of the land, the Episcopal Church is rising to meet the logic of events and to bear her part in helping to educate and to Christianize the peoples of

far countries, soon to be neighbors in community of interest and in vicinage, as always in the Gospel sense of neighborhood. The Board of Missions received reports from the several missionary bishops, and from the Assistant Secretary. Donations during the year that is past have been larger than ever before, in spite of the hard times and the death of Dr. Langford, General Secretary to the Board of Missions. The Woman's Auxiliary made a grand showing. Its triennial meeting was attended by about five thousand women. Its united offering—a special gift, made only on the one day of its service—reached the sum of over eighty thousand dollars.

Sunday was known as Missionary Sunday, and from every Episcopal pulpit in Washington the great commission of the risen Lord, "Go ye into all nations and teach," was reinforced. At St. Paul's Church a Japanese candidate for the ministry was ordained; at Epiphany Church, in the afternoon, the anniversary meeting of the American Church Missionary Society was held; in the evening the Apostolic Bishop of California, Dr. Nichols, preached an eloquent and inspiring sermon before the Board of Missions. Dr. Huntington, of Grace Church, New York, preached in the morning in Epiphany Church, where a large collection for missions in the new diocese of Washington was taken.

Dr. Huntington preached on Sunday morning in Epiphany Church, from the text "And the earth helped the woman." The sermon was a remarkable presentment of the force, potential and actual, that woman exerts in the Church and world to-day. In the elder day when the necessity of brute force and masculine strength in subduing nature was evident, the power of Christian womanhood was not so great. To-day, as in the figure in Revelation where the woman typifies all that is good and pure in the Church, the earth "helps" the woman. The forces of nature are no longer opposed to man; they have been conquered; powers and elements with which he once did battle have become his obedient servants; the reign of peace is at hand. The time has come when the qualities of faith and love, which are essentially womanly, must rule the world. Commenting on the remarkable meetings held by the Woman's Auxiliary during the week, which have shown an enthusiasm and a power of self-sacrifice rarely equaled, as illustrative of the importance of woman's work in the

Church, he concluded with a practical plea for the increase of the female diaconate recently revived, and begged for the privilege of being among the first to suggest that college women, who have their life-work before them, choose it as a profession—a calling which gives full scope for their best ambitions, allowing room for active work in the solution of social and philanthropic problems, and making all effort effective through the outflow of Christian faith and love, and permanent under the direction of the organized institutional life of the Church.

The Funeral of Dr. John Hall

The funeral of Dr. John Hall was in all respects in keeping with his life. The services were held in the Fifth Avenue Presbyterian Church, on Tuesday, October 4. The only floral decorations were the lilies on the casket, which were from his own family. The church was crowded in every part, and many were unable to gain admittance. The services were conducted by the Rev. Wallace Radcliffe, D.D., Moderator of the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Churches, and the Rev. W. M. Paxton, D.D., of the Princeton Theological Seminary. The pastors of the Mission Chapels of the Fifth Avenue Presbyterian Church also assisted in the services. The music was furnished by a double quartette of male voices. Addresses were delivered by Dr. Radcliffe and by Dr. Paxton. The interment was at Woodlawn Cemetery on Wednesday, October 5. Thus ends one of the noblest pastorates which has ever been known in New York. Few men in so conspicuous a position were ever so simple, so humble, and so consecrated to the very last. While it is one of the wealthiest and most beautiful of the Protestant churches of the world, during Dr. Hall's pastorate the Fifth Avenue Church was characterized by its Puritan simplicity of service and observance. The memory of Dr. Hall will be held in dear regard as a pastor, a preacher, and a friend, by all who have ever known him personally or have had the privilege of enjoying his ministry.

The Successor to Dr. Hall

On Sunday, October 9, a meeting of the congregation of the Fifth Avenue Presbyterian Church was called to consider the question of a successor to the late Dr. John Hall in the pastorate of that church. The meeting is to be held next Monday evening. The

session has voted to recommend the calling of the Rev. Alexander Connell, of London. Mr. Connell is the successor of such men as the Rev. James Hamilton, D.D., and the Rev. J. Oswald Dykes, D.D., in what is probably the most prominent Presbyterian church in London. He is very popular among his own people, and there can be no reason why he should leave his present field, unless he prefers to live in the United States. The church to which he is likely to be called is no more prominent and offers no larger opportunities of service than the church of which he is already pastor. But, although he is recommended by the session, it is by no means sure that he will be called, for a very large number of the congregation are reported to favor the calling of the Rev. Donald Sage Mackaye, D.D., of the North Reformed Church of Newark, N. J., and his friends are said to be confident that when the votes are counted he will be found to have a large majority. Dr. Mackaye recently declined a very urgent call to the Fourth Presbyterian Church of Chicago, of which the Rev. Thomas C. Hall, son of the Rev. Dr. John Hall, was the last pastor.

The American Missionary Association

The American Missionary Association has extinguished the last dollar of its indebtedness. The year opened with a debt of \$55,000. For three years the expenditures have been rigidly cut down, and a payment made each year on the debt. During the last year the total expenses were reduced by \$46,000, by retrenchment in all the offices and in the mission fields. The receipts of the Association this year were \$327,487. This result cannot fail to give the Association a great impulse.

Ritualism in England

The battle against ritualism in the Anglican Church shows no signs of abatement. The papers, both religious and secular, devote to this subject a large part of their space. They contain more interesting articles about it than about the march to Omdurman or the diplomatic contests in the Far East. One peculiar phase of the contest is the part which is taken in it by the Nonconformists. Their utterances are resisted as intrusions by the Anglicans, but their reply is that the English Church is established, that it is a part of the nation, and therefore that it is their duty to criticise, since in a measure

they are responsible for its existence and character. The most prominent of the Nonconformist critics are Drs. Bigg, the Wesleyan leader, and Guinness Rogers, the Congregational. Concerning them the "Guardian" says: "We cannot prevent them from expressing their opinions on Church matters, but we can affirm that they are not the opinions of men who have any right to be heard in the case." These gentlemen, however, are not intimidated by such articles. In the meantime the London "Times" has spoken in very plain terms. It does not hesitate to say that if the advanced section of the clergy continue in their present course, and if that is approved by the Church, they will have to become an independent body, for the English nation will not much longer tolerate their action. For the "Times" to hint at disestablishment is something very unusual.

The Theology of Professor Beet

Our recent article concerning the Rev. J. Agar Beet, D.D., and the Wesleyan Conference of England, has elicited a letter from a Professor in one of our Methodist theological seminaries. The letter is not intended to correct any of our statements, but it adds other facts. As the case of Professor Beet is attracting so much attention in Wesleyan and Methodist circles, we make the following extracts from the letter:

(1) Professor Beet's book, "The Last Things," is a clever exegetical study of the New Testament. One of its most valuable parts is its complete refutation on that ground of the premillennial doctrine of the Second Coming.

(2) By the same method it shows how impossible it is to affirm Universalism. The Scriptures plainly teach, says Beet, everlasting punishment.

(3) The Scriptures do not affirm the essential immortality of the human soul, nor do they deny it.

(4) Nor does the Bible teach Conditional Immortality. A large part of Professor Beet's book is taken up with careful examination of the passages alleged in support of that doctrine, and his conclusion is that they utterly fail to establish it.

(5) Professor Beet then comes round to the Catholic Doctrine of Eternal Punishment as the only one certainly taught in the New Testament.

(6) But this does not necessarily mean everlasting torment. The Scriptures do not forbid us to believe that sin may result in such a dissipation of the springs of existence that the sinner may experience a relative annihilation of his mental and moral powers and sink back into a dehumanized life. So far from this hypothesis being new in Methodism, it was distinctly announced several years ago by the great theologian, Professor William B. Pope, late of Didsbury College, Manchester.

Notes and Queries

NOTE TO CORRESPONDENTS.—*It is seldom possible to answer any inquiry in the next issue after its receipt. Those who find expected answers late in coming will, we hope, bear in mind the impediments arising from the constant pressure of many subjects upon our limited space. Communications should always bear the writer's name and address.*

Kindly oblige me by answering the following questions: 1. How do you reconcile Genesis i., 27, with Genesis ii., 21-22? 2. What are some good books on the question of the Trinity, both as applied to Deity and as exemplified in natural law? Also some on poetry? 3. What are some of Coventry Patmore's chief works? 4. Where was Kipling born? Was he ever in India, and if so, how long? 5. Is it correct to speak of a person as having "spoken bad grammar;" or may one say "used bad grammar" correctly? Is it the best usage to say *English* in place of *grammar*? 6. May "wood" be used correctly as an adjective, as in "wood rim"? 7. Has such an expression as "I have as nearly enough as" authority? Are "ride slow" and "drive slow" correct forms of expression?

H. R. F.

1. Taken as statements of fact they are irreconcilable. One who thinks it important to reconcile them has to assume that Adam was the first man in the history of Revelation, not in the history of Creation, and to interpret the story of Eve's origin as a symbolical legend, indicating that the solitary Adam found his helpmeet as singularly, and as congenial to him, as if she had been made out of his substance—his other self. 2. See list given October 1, page 352; except as to the Trinity in natural law, of which there is nothing. As to poetry, see Stedman's "Elements of Poetry" and Matthew Arnold's Essay on Poetry, but especially the poets themselves. 3. The work by which he will be known is "The Angel in the House," published in four parts, 1854-1862. 4. He was born in Bombay, 1864, educated in England, returned to India 1882, left India 1889. 5. "Used bad grammar" is the proper phrase. Bad grammar is always bad English, but bad English may be in good grammar. 6. No; say "wooden." 7. In such a sentence as "I have as nearly enough support guaranteed as I expected," the phraseology would be correct, and therefore authorized. "Slowly" is the proper adverb, although current usage tends to authorize the expressions you mention.

I have long wanted to be settled in my convictions on the question of the second coming of Christ. A few weeks ago I secured Dr. Whiton's

book "Beyond the Shadow," which seems to me to be the sanest treatment of the question I have seen. But if the premillenarian view has no foundation in Scripture or reason (as he shows, and I think he is right), will you kindly say a word on the following questions: 1. Why have so many able and good men adopted that view? 2. Why has it been such an inspiration to their active Christian work as they say it is, and as it seems to be? 3. Will you also name one or two of the best works on the books of Daniel and Revelation, which are involved in this question?

H. E. J.

1. Partly because of the tendency, apparent in Church history, to externalize the spiritual truths of religion; partly because the ideas of the Apostles, occasionally colored by their inherited conceptions of the subject, have overshadowed the more spiritual ideas discernible in Jesus's teachings. 2. Because of the essential truth involved in it—the return of Christ, however misrepresented. Yet many who regard the kingdom of God as destined to be realized on earth by development rather than by miracle, testify that premillenarianism appears to be a drawback and hindrance to their endeavors to gain co-operation. 3. It is only through a misunderstanding of these books that they are regarded as involved in this question.

Kindly give me some information regarding the discovery and present ownership of the codex Bezae ("D").

W. F. H.

It was procured by Beza in 1562 from the monastery of St. Irenæus at Lyons, France, and by him presented in 1581 to the library in Cambridge, England, where it now is. For information as to its peculiarities and value, see Schaff's "Companion to the New Testament."

Will you tell me where Raphael's pictures, the "Hours," are now? We can find little about these pictures in several art books consulted.

A. H.

Raphael's "Hours" form one of the tapestry borders of his "Acts of the Apostles." The tapestries are in the Vatican; the cartoons from which they were designed are in the South Kensington Museum, London.

Kindly name the best translation of the Iliad. How does Chapman's rank?

A. S. P.

For a metrical translation, Bryant's; at least for the general reader. For a prose translation, Lang's. Chapman's is not so modern.

For the Little People



How the Pines Grew

By Anna Temple

For many and many a day
The pines heard the strong wind sighing,
Moaning and crying—

“Over the hills and away
Is a place I am knowing
Where nothing is growing.”

“No grass?” cried the pines in distress,
“No grand forest trees?”
“None of these,”

Sobbed the wind; “barrenness
Rules the place I am knowing,
For *nothing* is growing.”

“Take our seed,” said the pines in dismay,
“Quick, let them be planted
Where most they are wanted,
Over the hills and away
In that land thou art knowing
Where nothing is growing.”

Then fast went the seed-laden breeze
To that desolate land,
And there in the sand
It planted the gift of the trees.
And now for that sowing
Sweet pine groves are growing.

A Stolen Ride

Lilla grew up in the city, Clara in the country—the real country—about a mile from a small village. Lilla went to the country to spend the summer at Clara’s house. The cows were a constant terror to her; she could never be made to go near one. The sight of Belle and Brownie and Whitey and the rest coming down the road at night with Rover, the big dog, at their heels, sent her flying into the house. When the cows were in the pasture, she would go into the barn and pat Whitefoot, the horse, and feed him, going into the stall right beside him without fear; but the cows filled her with terror always. The chickens were a constant source of delight; the sheep would have been, if one lamb could have been persuaded to enact the part of Mary’s little lamb, and follow her even across the field. Alas! these lambs had no affection except for their mothers. This failure to enact the scene of Mary and her

little lamb was a bitter disappointment to Lilla for many months.

The tragedy of the summer came to Lilla one Saturday afternoon. This day had always been a joy to Lilla, for her father came up early, and there was sure to be a ride, or a walk, or a row on the river with the best playmate Lilla ever had. This Saturday afternoon Lilla sat in the swing dreaming; Clara was wiping dishes. At last Clara came round the corner of the house. At the same moment the iceman turned the corner and stopped at the gate. As he disappeared with the large, shining square of ice in the ice-house, Clara ran toward the gate saying, “Let us ride to the corner on the steps.”

Lilla jumped down and joined Clara with a feeling of terror she was ashamed to own. The step was so high, and so open at the back, that it seemed quite possible to fall backward. “Don’t be a scare cat,” said Clara; “we can jump off at the corner.” Presently the iceman came, and got noisily on the big cart, all unconscious of the unexpected passengers in the rear. There was a crack of the whip, a creak, and a jingling of chains, and away went the rumbling big cart. Into ruts, over stones, faster and faster every minute! The corner was turned so rapidly that the two little girls were almost thrown off.

“What shall we do? He is going through the village,” said Clara. Both called “Stop! stop!” but the man did not hear. The houses were beginning to stand close together, at the end of the village street, when Clara threw herself off, falling into the dust in the road, and rolling toward the grass curb. Lilla was too frightened to let go. The man turned another corner, but she clung with all her might. She was too frightened to scream now. Where was she going? Would the man ever stop? What would her father say?

On and on went the rumbling, tumbling wagon. Bumping over stones, running into ruts, now on one side of the road, now on the other! At last it turned into an open gate, and stopped before a barn.

“My goodness!” exclaimed a woman with a very kind face. “What in the world!”

The man came round to the back of the

wagon, and stared at the helpless little girl, who could not speak. She was gray with dust—face, dress, and hair. "Where did you come from?" he asked, gruffly. That filled the cup of misery. Lilla began to cry so hard that she could not answer.

The woman took her in her arms, washed her face, brushed her dress, and comforted her so that at last she could tell her story.

"I must have something to eat; I can't take her back right away," declared the man. Poor Lilla! She looked at the clock. In one half-hour her father would be at the station, and she would not be there to meet him. The tears began to come, but she would not let them fall. She knew she ought to be punished, and this was part of the punishment. Just as her father was getting into a carriage to come for her—Clara had told of the ride—Lilla was driven to the door, a very tired, ashamed, unhappy little girl, who was glad to hide in her own room. She never took a ride again without the invitation of the owner of the horse and wagon.

A Workman and Trapper

A naturalist in the West has written a most interesting account of a species of spiders called water-spiders and the way they work. He tells us that the spider is most industrious, and that the baby spiders go to work to spin a tiny web in the corner of the big web spun by their elders. This observer says that when the water-spider wishes to make his web, he selects his place for making his home, and starts by spinning a guy or guide from one place to the other. He spins several guys of varying length. Some will be ten feet, some only one. The length of the guys depends on the place where the new home is to be built. The guy that is to bear the weight of the net is strengthened by several cables. He carries the beams, as the carpenter would call them, from the center to the places where they will best support the net, and then lays the flooring or the circles that make a spider's web so beautiful. The spider begins in the center to lay the flooring. After making a few circles he goes to work at the outer edge and weaves a thread, or board, whichever you prefer to call it, from guy to guy or beam to beam. These are not circles, as you will see if you study a web, nor as close together as they are in the center. Then this spider goes back to the center and spins his floor. He carries the thread with his hind feet, and does not allow

it to touch the beams or guys except at the point he wishes. The thread is moist, but becomes dry at once as soon as the air touches it.

Perhaps when you know that the web is built for the purpose of catching food, you will think it ought to be called a trap. So careful is the spider that it shall serve this purpose that he tests every part of it by his own weight. If it breaks, he strengthens it most carefully by making the threads stronger. The food is caught at night, usually. In the morning it is eaten, the net almost completely destroyed, and repaired or renewed late in the afternoon. If this spider falls, he carries a thread with him as he falls that will enable him to get back.

Should we not try to know, and treat with respect always, these little creatures that seem to have such intelligence and skill?

A Neighborly Act

An interesting story is told by two men of some squirrels and a flock of sheep near Bar Harbor.

These men were hunting. Suddenly they heard squirrels chirruping in a thicket. The noise seemed to have a peculiar effect on some sheep grazing near by. The squirrels left the thicket in which they were first heard, and went into an orchard, climbing a tree near the meadow where the sheep were grazing. Here they chatted. The sheep all ran to the tree and stood, as many as could, under it. The squirrels gnawed off the apples, for which the sheep scrambled like boys. The squirrels scampered to a tree further away, where the sheep followed them, falling over each other in their haste to reach the tree first. Here the squirrels again gnawed off apples for their friends below. The squirrels, the hunters say, evidently enjoyed the struggles of the sheep to get the fallen apples. They watched them long after they had stopped feeding them, then scampered from tree to tree until they had reached the thicket in which they lived. The sheep went slowly back to the field.

A Great Secret

"Ah, papa! I'm not going to tell," said Lou, "What a great surprise I have for you; It's full of raisins, it's good to eat, It is frosted on top, and it's nice and sweet; It begins with C and it ends with E, And I made it myself for your birthday tea."

—*Youth's Companion.*

The Home Club

Babies and Supervision

Dr. Grace Peckham-Murray, in addressing the Household Economic Association of New York, made one point which appealed to the intelligence of every mother present, whether she were an offender or not. Dr. Peckham-Murray said that "responsibility for the proper development of children is felt only too keenly by most mothers. They become too anxious, and over-anxious care of the child breeds hysteria in a girl and gives a great deal of trouble to a boy." Many mothers would take exception to the doctor's statement when she said that there is no greater waste than the exhaustion of a mother's strength in looking after children in directions in which a servant can do it as well or even better.

It is most difficult to conceive of any service which a servant can render better to a child than its own mother. Even where the mother is feeble, the physical care of the child should be under her constant direction and oversight. More than one child has been used as a thermometer to test the temperature of a bath. It is not a mere newspaper story, that of the nurse who, in reply to the question, "How do you know when the water is right?" said, "If the baby turns blue I know it is too cold, and if she screams and gets red I know it is too hot."

The trouble with many mothers in America who can afford to hire service is that they add to the service responsibility, and do not watch their children as they should. Many children never recover from the effects of the ill-treatment of body and soul to which they were subjected at the hands of servants whom their too trustful mothers trusted too implicitly.

The School and the Parents

The school just now comes prominently into the plans of the family, and is occupying more thought in the family council than it will at any time during the rest of the year. It should be considered on more than its educational side. The sanitary and hygienic side are quite as important. This view of the school is important from the economic side. A poorly lighted, badly ventilated, overcrowded school-room means loss of

vitality, and consequent inability to study; less control over the mind.

The public schools are, in fact, less likely to suffer from the conditions than the private schools. Lack of capital is responsible for the selection of houses and rooms never intended for school purposes and wholly unadapted to them. No amount of good intention or good teaching compensates for the evils mentioned.

Every father ought to know the amount of air and the kind of air in the school-room in which his child is to spend from three to five hours daily, five days in the week. What it means to breathe impure air is clearly shown in the second chapter of "Ventilation of School Buildings," by Gilbert Morrison, in which have been gathered extracts of reports of investigations made by experts. Mr. Morrison asks, "Why does the intelligent parent send his child to a school-room poorly ventilated, and crowded with children, some of whom are breathing into a stagnant air the germs of disease and death?" Why?

Medical inspection is now a part of the public system in all great cities. Why should not private schools require a certificate of health from children? Would it not often arouse parents to the physical condition of children apparently well? Every child requires 2,000 cubic feet of air per hour. The size of the school-room and the number of children in it regulate the amount of air, pure and impure, that is given to each child. How is the room ventilated? is, then, a most important question from the side of economics. Bad air makes a torpid mind, one impossible to stimulate under bad atmospheric conditions. The lighting of the school-room is very important. The windows should be two-thirds in height of the width of the room. All light should fall from the left side; each pupil should have a desk and seat to himself.

In the matter of clothing the parents are accountable for much discomfort and consequent friction. School-rooms are far more likely to be too warm than too cool. Warmth should be secured by the thick outer garments in winter rather than by the use of thick dresses and jackets. Washable shirt-waists have secured two things for girls—freshness of dress, and the possibility of

adapting the clothing to the heat of the school-room, by putting on a jacket if cool, and removing it when warm. Clothing next the body should be soft and pliable, and never worn after it is made thick and hard in laundrying. If the clothing and food, hours of rest and exercise, and the study hours are carefully looked after at home; if the sanitary and hygienic side of the school life, which an intelligent parent can investigate and understand, are carefully investigated; if the number in the classes is noted, and the ability of the teacher to hold the attention of the pupils, and the degree of interest she arouses, noted, the education of the child is being carefully looked after from the parents' standpoint. If these details are not known and attended to, the education of the child is not being cared for intelligently.

The Warning of Words

The tendency to use superlative adjectives is considered by many the evidence of superficial thought—an indication of a want of discrimination. The place to repress the tendency to extravagant expression is in the home, first by example and then by dictation. The excessive use and misapplication of the words "grand," "awful," "lovely," "splendid," and numerous other words, to things and experiences that are mild and even commonplace, is unmoral. Words have character and dignity, and are entitled to respect. The people of Drumtochty reveal their integrity in their use of words as clearly as in their social relations. Language to them was a medium for expressing thought, not an escape-valve for emotion. To the careless user of language a close study of that chapter of "Beside the Bonnie Brier-Bush" entitled "The Cunning Speech of Drumtochty" will be a revelation. The close shading of words to meaning is proof of the moral integrity of the people. Such care sharpens the intellect and trains the will. Mr. Hopps, believing in his mission as a reformer to the people of Drumtochty, sets about his work with enthusiasm. Jamie Souter, noted for his "gift o' deescrimination," undertook Mr. Hopps's education, and that gentleman began to suspect, when Jamie gave his first lesson, that he was being educated. Mr. Hopps, charmed with the sunset, attempted to improve Jamie's appreciation. "'No bad'! I call it glorious, and if it hisn't, then I'd like to know what his."

"Man," replied Jamie, "ye 'ill surely keep

ae word for the twenty-first o' Revelations." Read the twenty-first of Revelation after that criticism of the use of the word "glorious," and the word will ever after have a new meaning and a new use in your vocabulary. It is no doubt true that language is a revelation of the character, a clearer revelation than manners—for that reason an indication to every parent of the temperament of the child he is training, one of nature's signboards too often neglected and forgotten in the training of children.

The Voice and Its Training

Voice culture is not receiving, either in the home or the school, the attention it should have. The conversational voice is of far more importance to the average girl or woman than the singing voice. It should be subjected to the training of an expert, long enough to overcome defects. The drawling of words is a common fault of little children. That habit, a bad one, can be overcome in the home. The loud, straining tones, so objectionable, can be very greatly modified by an intelligent mother. These tones strain the vocal cords and affect the health. From a hygienic standpoint the voice should be trained. The voice that most needs the care of an expert is the characterless voice, the voice without shading. A low, sweet voice is a most excellent thing in man or woman, but an indistinct voice is a very serious defect. A bright, magnetic voice, flexible, resonant, one that expresses the shades of meaning, as words the shades of thought, is the open sesame to the heart of the hearer. A sympathetic voice is one that responds to the thought of another. The voice should at least not misrepresent the owner. It should be the true index of his nature, as his vocabulary is of his culture. In physical training the voice is as important as the spine, the shoulders, or the head. The chest development is, to a very great degree, a matter of the right use of the vocal cords, and to just that degree are their condition and training important to the development of the body.

When the late Professor Henry Drummond was giving a course of lectures on "Evolution" in the Lowell Institute, he overheard two women, evidently much opposed to his views, discussing them. One of them said: "Mary, if what he says is not true, we can stand it. But if it is true, we must hush it up."

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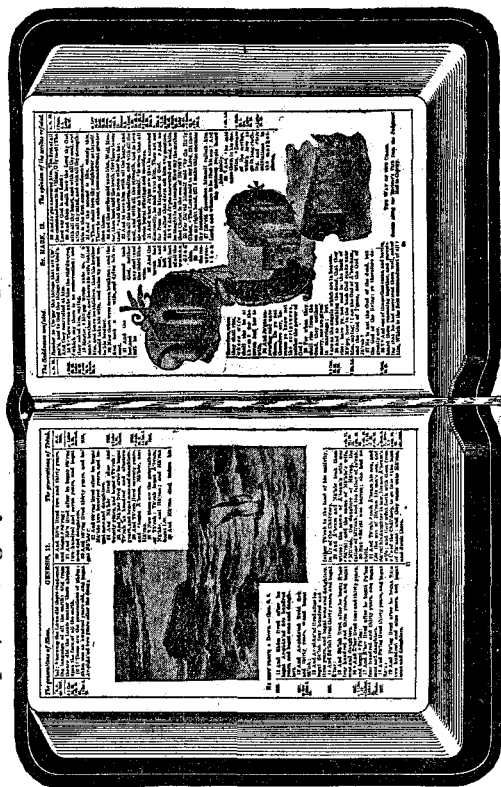
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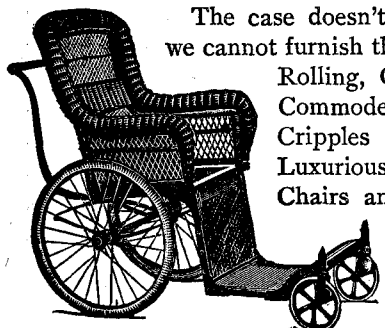
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Interesting addresses and reports will be presented in regard
to the various fields of work—the Negroes of the South, the
American Highlanders, the Indians of the West, the Chinese
of the Pacific Coast, and the Alaskans.

Hospitalities of the Congregational churches of Concord
will be extended to the officers of the Association, and speakers,
life-members, and accredited delegates, who send their names
to the Chairman of the Entertainment Committee, Mr. Willie
D. Thompson, Concord, N. H., before October 17.

It will be absolutely necessary that application be made at
least a week in advance of the meeting, in order to secure
entertainment.

All other persons can obtain accommodations, for \$1.50 per
day and upwards, at hotels and boarding-houses, concerning
which information will be furnished by the Entertainment
Committee.

Every contributing church is entitled to representation at
the Annual Meeting of the American Missionary Association
by their pastor and two delegates. State associations and
local conferences are entitled to delegates. Life-members of
the Association also have full power of discussion and vote at
this meeting.

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The New England Passenger Association, which includes
the roads generally throughout New England, and the Trunk
Line Association, controlling most of the roads running into
New England, have arranged to sell tickets on the certificate
plan as below:

The certificate plan makes reduction to a fare and a third on
the round trip conditional on there being an attendance at the
meeting of not less than a hundred persons holding certificates.
Purchasers will pay full first-class fare coming to Concord,
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ticket is purchased. The important stations are supplied with
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Ticket agents at local stations not supplied with certificates
and through tickets to Concord, will inform parties of the
nearest station where they can be obtained; and, in such
cases, purchasers should buy a local ticket to such station and
then obtain their certificate and through ticket. These certifi-
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starting-point to Concord, in order to secure the one-third rate
in returning, as no refund of fare will be made on account of
any person's failing to obtain one. Holders of these certifi-
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early session at the office of the Transportation Committee for
indorsement by its Chairman, Henry McFarland, and by the
special agent of the Railroads in attendance for that purpose.
Upon the presentation of these certificates thus indorsed
(promptly upon adjournment of the meeting) to the local
ticket agents in Concord, return tickets can be obtained for
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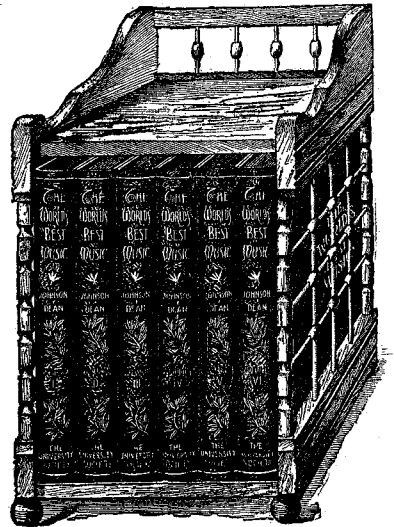
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